Understanding Indonesian Primary School Teachers' Social-Emotional Practice

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Abstract

Teaching and learning is an emotional experience and teachers play a crucial role in the nature of this experience. There is consistent evidence that shows a significant relationship between teachers' emotion, emotion regulation and social-emotional skills, and students' emotional, social and academic outcomes (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). However, little is known about teachers' emotional style, especially in an Indonesian context. This thesis aims to explore the underlying dimensions of the Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional practices.

A mixed-methods research design was employed. The first, qualitative research phase was conducted using classroom observations, focus group discussions and individual interviews. Twelve Indonesian primary school teachers who were nominated as having excellent social and emotional skills and 45 students were recruited for this phase. The observation notes and teachers' and students' statements were transcribed verbatim. A thematic approach was used for data analysis. Key emergent themes included teachers' relational philosophies about their work, teachers' sense of duty to nurture students, teachers' strategies to regulate their emotions and teachers' attempts to establish classroom harmony.

Based on the findings of the qualitative phase, two separate measurements to assess teachers' social-emotional practices called Teachers' Social-Emotional Practices – teachers' perspectives (TSEP-T) and teachers' social and emotional practices – and Students' Perspectives (TSEP-S) were developed. Subsequently, in Study 2, multidimensional scaling and hierarchical cluster analysis were applied to the data to produce visual representations of the structure of teacher-perceived and student-perceived teachers' social-emotional practices. In Study 3, the nature of teachers' social-emotional practices was further investigated by administering TSEP-T to 90 teachers and TSEP-S to 333 students. From teachers' data, five highly applicable clusters of social-emotional behaviours across five style patterns were identified, while from students' data, eight highly applicable clusters of teachers' social-emotional behaviours across ten style patterns were identified. Finally, the associations between the identified clusters and styles with a student-teacher relationship, student connectedness and wellbeing were explored using ANOVA.

The findings across three phases of the study showed the Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices as comprising relational philosophy, emotional relationship, nurturing,

emotion regulation and classroom harmony dimensions. The resulting dimensions were visually represented using “a jasmine flower” model, which allows this model to be discussed and expanded. Findings are compared and contrasted with existing literature and discussed with regard to the potential usefulness of teachers’ social-emotional styles for enhancing the teacher-student relationship, student connectedness and wellbeing. Implications based on these findings are considered for researchers and educational providers who together share responsibility for improving teachers’ social-emotional practices in primary classrooms.

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"My grace is sufficient for you, for my power is made perfect in weakness"

(2 Corinthians 12:9)

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Chapter One
Introduction to the Study

1.1 Introduction

"I like to go to school because I have a kind teacher and cool friends." (Adi[1] (9), Indonesian primary school student)

"Emotions in teaching practice are like spices and seasonings. However, it's not easy to create yummy and healthy food." (Sunar[1] (33), Indonesian primary school teacher)

I am an Indonesian woman who grew up in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. Yogyakarta is a city in the middle of Java island that is known as a "student city". The quality of education in Yogyakarta has become an exemplary model for other cities in Indonesia. In my hometown, a school was often labelled as a "good" or "favourite" school if it had high levels of academic accomplishment. For instance, when I was in secondary school, the teachers always reminded us to study hard so we could pass the national exam and go to a "favourite" high school and subsequently could be accepted into a "good" university. During the 1990s and early 2000s, the schools tended to focus only on academic accomplishment. However, as reflected in the above quotes, teaching and learning are not only about knowledge, cognition and skill development. Teaching and learning are also emotional experiences (Hargreaves, 1998). According to Schutz and DeCuir (2002), the school environment constructs a context for a range of emotional experiences that have the potential to influence teaching and learning processes. Furthermore, studies on teachers' emotions emphasise how emotion is inextricably linked to teachers' lives (e.g., Nias, 1996; Zembylas, 2003). Palmer (2007), who focuses on teaching "from within", highlights the unity between the intellectual, emotional and spiritual aspects of teacher identity that can lead to a new wholeness "…becoming more real by acknowledging the whole of who I am" (p. 14).

In my experience as an educational psychologist working with primary school teachers and students in Indonesia, I met many so-called 'effective' primary school teachers who were kind, smart, passionate and emotionally competent. Many teachers confided in me that being a teacher required as much social-emotional competence as it did intellectual ability. They reflected on their emotion regulation and stress management as demanding yet vital aspects

[1] In this thesis, all names used are a pseudonym to protect the real identity of the participants.

of teaching. I also met some children who loved to learn and attend school due to their positive experiences in their classrooms. These children also reported that they liked their teachers because they were caring, friendly, humorous or 'cool'. In contrast, I met exhausted students because their teachers demanded too much of them and I met unhappy children who did not like their schooling experiences because their teachers were impatient, indifferent, discriminative or overly strict.

Furthermore, I noticed that teachers were actually fully aware that their social-emotional behaviours did influence the tone of the classroom as well as their students' academic, social and emotional learning and development. However, at the same time, these teachers found themselves worried and overwhelmed by emotionally-provoking moments in the classrooms. These teachers told me that they did not learn extensively about the social-emotional aspects of teaching in their initial teacher education programme nor in professional development programmes. However, when these teachers began teaching, they recognised that emotions were present in school as they are everywhere. These teachers began to understand that to be an effective teacher, they needed to recognise the role of emotions in their teaching practice and how these emotions affected their relationships with students and their students' learning potential.

The links between the challenging social-emotional aspects of a primary school teacher's job and the incredibly relevant role of a teacher in students' learning and development have continued to captivate me. From these personal and professional experiences, I was motivated to investigate the social-emotional experiences of teachers in schools. I wanted to know how we might explain the Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional practices. Can we discover the diverse nature of their social-emotional practices?

In the following section, the background to my study is described, including the theoretical justification for exploring Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices and the overall aims and the context of this study. The chapter concludes with an overview of the thesis.

1.2 Justification for this Study

In any primary school, the teacher is the leading adult in the classroom and therefore, plays a dominating role to set the emotional tone. As Hargreaves (2000) notes, primary school classrooms are emotionally intense contexts. Although teachers' and students' emotions affect

each other in many ways, the teachers' attitudes and behaviours play an important role in creating a positive classroom climate. Moreover, intentionally or not, teachers are outstanding role models as well as play a powerful role in shaping students' academic, social, emotional and spiritual learning and development. It is vital therefore for primary school teachers to demonstrate competence in their social-emotional practice.

Typically, in Indonesian primary schools, one class is taught by one teacher who is called a homeroom teacher. Only subjects such as religion and music are taught by a specialist teacher. Around six hours is spent each day in the classroom, allowing for a lot of social interaction. This social interaction can be positive, but it can also create challenges. Based on my earlier study, conducted with 521 primary school students in Yogyakarta, 67.37% reported ongoing problems in their relationships with teachers (Saptandari, 2011). Furthermore, based on my preliminary focus group discussions with two groups of primary school students, they were sensitive to their teachers' emotional expressions, particularly anger, which highlight how the teachers' responses affected the classroom climate. The angry teacher produced a frightened classroom, but in contrast, a patient and calm teacher created a comfortable atmosphere. These students also said that they liked a humorous teacher and one who did not punish students for getting bad marks. This finding showed that teachers' emotions can influence students' learning opportunities and outcomes. However, it is not an easy task for teachers to manage their own emotions. Issues related to teachers' difficulties to regulate their emotions are regularly reported in the Indonesian media with headlines about their negative behaviours including hitting or slapping a student's face (Harianto, 2018; Solihin, 2018). Nevertheless, Republic of Indonesia Law 35/2014 on Child Protection Article 54 states that school should create a safe learning environment and is responsible for keeping the students safe from harm and abuse.

Another justification for this study lies in fact that most previous research in the area of teachers' social-emotional practice has been conducted in a predominantly Western context (e.g., Hargreaves, 1998; Harvey, Bimler, Evans, Kirkland, & Pechtel, 2012; Harvey & Evans, 2003; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). However, the nature of teachers' social-emotional practices in an Indonesian context remains unclear. Research investigating primary school teachers' social-emotional practices within an Indonesian context is vital because, firstly, it enables the identification of Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional behaviours and the implementation of these behaviours in teaching practice. Secondly, it supports the measurement of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices. Thirdly, it supports school

practitioners, researchers, educational agencies and other key stakeholders to design and develop educational and professional development programmes aimed at enhancing teachers' social-emotional teaching competencies. Fourthly, it encourages Indonesian government agencies to create effective practice policies and design responsive strategies to improve teachers' social-emotional competencies. Finally, the appropriate policies and strategies will support the quest in Indonesia to improve the quality of primary school education and, over time, to enhance the quality of Indonesian human resources.

1.3 Research Aims and Context

The primary aim of this study is to explore the underlying dimensions of the Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional practices.

The specific objectives of this study are to:

1. identify Indonesian primary school teachers' and students' perspectives of teachers' social-emotional practices
2. identify nominated Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional practices and how these are used in a classroom setting
3. systematically organise teachers' social-emotional practices in Indonesian primary school classrooms
4. identify the relationships between teachers' social-emotional practices and their relationships with students, and students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing.

A mixed methods research design, based on pragmatic paradigmatic assumptions, is used to attain these objectives. This methodology is acknowledged in the literature as a technique that results in the collection of rich data, which leads to a greater understanding of underlying phenomena (Molina-Azorin, 2016; Pluye & Hong, 2014). Firstly, a qualitative approach was used to explore the teachers' social-emotional practices in the classroom setting (Study 1). By asking teachers and students some questions about their thoughts, memories and experiences of teacher-student interactions, while also observing and documenting these interactions, this study set out to provide a comprehensive portrait of Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional practices. Using thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2012), a range of concepts were developed that summarised these practices.

Teachers are likely to demonstrate their social-emotional behaviours differently - just as parents show various social and emotional responses depending on their meta-emotional philosophies (Gottman, Katz, & Hooven, 1996). However, underlying practices themes will likely remain noticeable. Some studies (e.g., Chia, 2014; Han, 2016; Harvey, Bimlers, Evans, Kirkland, & Pechtel, 2012) provide evidence of quantifiable similarities and differences existing between teachers' social-emotional practices. By understanding the mutual as well as the distinctive components of teachers' social-emotional practices, we may better understand how a teacher's social-emotional practices evolve and, which parts are associated with students' relationships with teachers, sense of connectedness and wellbeing. Therefore, following the qualitative study, two separate but interrelated quantitative studies were conducted to refine a systematic structure to represent the Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices in general, and to profile their individual social-emotional practice patterns. These patterns were then used to identify the association between teachers' social-emotional practices and teacher-student relationships, as well as students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing.

As mentioned, this research was conducted in Indonesia. Indonesia is an archipelago located in Southeast Asia between the Indian Ocean and the Pacific Ocean (Hellwig & Tagliacozzo, 2009). The total population was estimated to be 258,705,000 in 2016[2] (Indonesian Central Statistics Agency, 2017b). The population is very diverse ethnically, linguistically and religiously. The Javanese are the largest of the 36 major ethnic groups, comprising 41% of the population and dominating the country politically (Megawangi, Zeitlin, & Colletta, 1995). According to the 2010 national census (Indonesian Central Statistics Agency, 2010), 87.18% of the population adheres to Islam and the other official religions are Christianity, Hinduism, Buddhism, Confucianism and indigenous faith.

Yogyakarta city district, the capital of Yogyakarta Special Region was selected to be an area of study. There are 90 public primary schools and 75 private primary schools in Yogyakarta with 100% school participation for children aged 7-12 years old (Indonesian Central Statistics Agency, 2017a) . Yogyakarta is acclaimed as *Kota Pelajar* (student city) as this region is also home to more than 100 higher education institutions. With a significant number of these institutions, many people from other Indonesian cities and from other countries come to study in this region which creates a beautiful religious, cultural and linguistic diversity. Yogyakarta Special Region is also recognised as a cultural city representing the uniqueness of a

[2] The result of Indonesia Population Projection 2010-2035 (mid-year/June)

"traditional Javanese[3] community" (Dahles, 2002). Until now, despite its diversity, Javanese culture, values and traditions are firmly held in Yogyakarta which is still headed by a monarchy. A further description of the context for this study is made Chapter Two.

1.4 Thesis Structure

This thesis is presented in eight chapters, including this first chapter in which an introduction to and rationale for the study has been outlined. The overall aim, approach and context of the research have also been discussed. The thesis continues in the following sequence.

In the second chapter, an overview of the key literature is presented regarding teachers' social-emotional practices in a classroom setting. It reviews the literature on emotion, social-emotional skills and the development of these skills. Further, attention is paid to the emotional practice of teaching and teachers' social-emotional competencies. This section indicates that the role of emotions in non-Western classrooms in general and in Indonesian classrooms in particular is much less understood. Next, previous studies on teacher-student relationships, school connectedness and students' wellbeing are explored. Finally, background information about the Indonesian education system and cultural context of the study are presented.

Chapter Three explains the methodology for this study by explaining the paradigmatic assumptions, pragmatism, mixed methods research design, and making inferences from mixed methods research, along with the research protocol. Chapter four follows with an explanation of the methods used to generate and analyse data in the qualitative study (Study 1). The procedures of the fieldwork detailing the processes of entering the field, data generation and data analysis of Study 1 are presented. The methods used to generate and analyse data in Study 2 and Study 3 are included in Chapter Six and Seven.

The fifth chapter is the first of three findings chapters. This chapter reports on the qualitative research employed in the study (Study 1). Included in this chapter is a brief discussion in relation to the literature of the social-emotional practices that occurred in the research setting.

[3] The largest ethnic group in Indonesia; predominantly located in the central to eastern parts of Java Island. Most participants in this study will be Javanese.

Chapter Six discusses the first quantitative study (Study 2). This chapter begins by specifying the participants, the development of the research instruments, and the data collection procedures, followed by the data analysis technique used in the present study. Next, the findings are presented and discussed.

The second quantitative research employed in the third study is presented in Chapter Seven. This chapter includes the procedure of data generation, detailing the questionnaire, the participants and the data analysis. In line with the previous chapter, the results of this third study are presented and discussed.

Chapter Eight brings together the findings presented and discussed separately in Chapter Five, Six and Seven by integrating it with contemporary literature reviewed in Chapter Two to examine the complex and diverse nature of Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional practices. A visual representation of the participating teachers' social-emotional practice dimensions is also presented and explained. Finally, conclusions are made and key contributions of the study are outlined. Implications and future research recommendations for policy and practice are articulated.

Chapter Two
Review of the Literature

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the theoretical and research-based literature related to teachers' social-emotional skills. In the first section, literature on emotion is discussed including the social function of emotions and the development of social-emotional skills. The role of emotion in teaching and learning process is then examined, followed by a consideration of teaching as an emotional practice and the ways in which teachers demonstrate their social-emotional competencies. The next section reviews literature on teacher-student relationships, school connectedness and students' wellbeing. Finally, this chapter briefly explores the history of education in Indonesia in order to contextualise this research.

2.2 Human Emotion

The following section commences with a review of emotions, starting with theoretical assumptions about emotion. It highlights the social-constructivist view of emotion and its implications for studying emotions in the field of education. The section goes on to discuss the social functions of emotion, as well as social and emotional skills. Finally, the development of social and emotional skills is discussed, including how parents and primary school teachers can support this development.

Emotions are central to human life. Since emotions are easier to feel than to describe, it is perhaps not surprising that a generally accepted definition of emotion is lacking. As Izard (2010) argues "emotion has no generally accepted definition" (p. 369). Earlier, words such as sentiments and passions were used to illustrate feelings which we now think of as emotions (Oatley, 2004). In the 1880s, psychologists Carl Lange and William James independently proposed a similar theory of emotion. According to W. James (1894), emotion is "not a primary feeling which directly aroused by the exciting object or thought, but a secondary feeling indirectly aroused; the primary effect being the organic changes in question, which are immediate reflexes following upon the presence of the object" (p. 516). In other words, emotion is the physical arousal in response to a stimulus that creates the feeling of emotion.

According to this idea, known as the James-Lange theory, people do not cry because they feel sad, they feel sad because they cry.

The James-Lange theory was challenged in the 1920s by a physiologist Walter Cannon. Cannon's (1927) work suggested that emotions could be experienced even when the body does not reveal a physiological reaction. Furthermore, he noted, physiological reactions to different emotions can be very similar. Cannon's theory was extended by another physiologist, Philip Bard. The resulting Cannon-Bard theory stated that the hypothalamus in the brain is involved in the emotional response to stimuli and that such responses are reserved by evolutionary more recent neocortical regions, and removal of the cortex releases the hypothalamic circuit from top-down control, permitting uncontrolled emotion displays (Dalgleish, 2004).

The cognitive psychology movement, in the late 1950_s, led to the development of theories focusing on an individual's subjective appraisal of environmental events. These theories suggest that various emotions such as joy, pride, anger or fear can be triggered and influenced by experience. According to the Schachter-Singer two-factor theory, emotions consist of two components: a physiological arousal and cognition about the arousing situation. Schachter and Singer (1962) advise that the same state of physiological arousal can be labelled with a different emotion, depending on the cognitive interpretation of the situation. It is the cognitions that decide whether "happiness", "sadness", or "anxiety", or some other emotion, is attributed to the state of physiological arousal.

In this study, I have opted for a social-constructivist view of emotions (Averill, 1980; Harré, 1986). The term 'constructivist' has a double connotation: firstly, it implies that emotions are social *constructions,* not genetically determined, and secondly, it signifies that emotions are *improvisations* or based on a one's perception of a certain situation (Averill, 1980). Averill (1980) pointed out three key assumptions of social-constructionist view of emotion: (1) emotions are complex states consisting of cognitive judgements, intervening processes and behavioural expressions, (2) intervening processes, no less than emotional judgements and expressions, are determined, in part, by cultural-based beliefs and values and (3) emotional states help to strengthen the beliefs and values by which they are determined. A social constructivist approach does not reject the significance of biological or psychological aspects of emotion. However, most constructivists claim that systems of cultural meaning are fundamental to understand emotion and the physical aspects of emotion may be considered barely important (Harré, 1986).

Many researchers (e.g., Hargreaves, 1998; Nias, 1996; Op't Eynde, De Corte, & Vershaffel, 2001; van Veen, 2003) have been influenced by this social constructivist view in their studies of emotions in educational settings. Their studies mainly related to sociological research about emotions and how the emotional experience of interpersonal interaction between teachers and students occurs within a social context. As Nias (1996) stated: "neither cognition nor feeling can be separated from the social and cultural forces which help to form them and which are in turn shaped by them" (p. 294). In other words, emotions are grounded in specific social and cultural contexts that comprise teachers, students and their behaviours in the classroom. These social, cultural and constructivist theoretical views act as the theoretical framework for my study in an Indonesian educational context.

In addition, sociocultural theories provide a deeper understanding of human emotion. Vygotsky (1986, as cited in Roth, 2011), pointed out that thought cannot be understood unless its affective-volitional dimension is identified. Vygotsky student, Leont'ev took up this idea and developed a cultural-historical activity theory. He argued that feeling and thinking are reflections of the concrete reality human subjects experience while participating in concrete, collective human activity oriented to the realisation of the collective object/motives. Later, Holzkamp noted that the object/motive of activity and emotion - regulate, monitor and give sense to what the subjects of activity do. Emotions as psychological phenomena are constructed from, as well as reflect social activities and their corresponding cultural concepts (Ratner, 2000). Ratner also argue that emotions are cultural phenomena because they are socially constructed products which are functionally independent of biological determinants and formed through socialisation, which eventually reflects social activities and cultural concepts. According to Ratner (2000), the socially structured ways in which people think, act and are treated in the cultural activities stimulate the development of emotions, are reflected in the characteristics of emotions, and are the main function of emotions.

2.2.1 The social functions of emotions

Emotions have social effects (e.g., Fischer, Manstead, & Zaalberg, 2003; Tiedens & Leach, 2004), whether or not these effects are intentional. However, Fischer and Manstead (2008) argue that these social effects are not the same as social functions. They distinguish two social functions of emotions: affiliation function and social distancing function. Affiliation function of emotions helps an individual or group to establish or maintain relations with other individuals or other social groups, while the social distancing function helps the individual or

group to move away from others and to compete with the others for social status of power (Fischer & Manstead, 2008).

These two social functions of emotions can be applied at either an interpersonal or group level. Regarding the affiliation function of emotions, emotions enable people to create and to maintain long-term and intimate relationships by promoting closeness and harmony and also avoiding social isolation (Fischer & Manstead, 2008). An example of this is the study carried out by Rimé, Philippot, Boca, and Mesquita (1992) that showed people share their emotions mostly with family and friends. Another example of the affiliation function of emotions is crying which is a signal of helplessness and powerlessness (Frijda, 1986) and also a call for support (Nelson, 2005). Thus, it is not surprising if Vingerhoets, Cornelius, Van Heck, and Becht (2000) found that people cry more often in the company of partners or intimates than in the company of strangers.

Alongside the affiliation function, emotions can function to create or increase distance between self and others in a way that enhances one's own social standing (Fischer & Manstead, 2008). The emotions of anger, contempt and pride are assumed to serve this function. For example, the expression of contempt, usually in the form of derogation and rejection, frequently results in the social exclusion of the object. The intention of the expression of this emotion is to make it clear that the other person is inferior and worthless (Fischer & Roseman, 2007).

Furthermore, affiliation and social distancing functions of emotions can also be applied to group emotions (Fischer & Manstead, 2008). These authors use the term "group-based emotion" to refer to the fact that group members have more similar concerns, make more similar appraisal and hence experience more similar emotions. This definition is comparable to the phenomenon of emotion contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1993). If group members engage in more frequent face-to-face interaction with each other than with non-members, contagion is usually greater among group members than among non-members.

2.2.2 Social and emotional skills

Throughout this thesis, the term "social-emotional practices" will refer to the teachers' attitudes and behaviours related to their social interactions and emotional responses to these interactions. The term "social-emotional practices" is closely associated with "social-emotional

skills" which is commonly used in psychology and education. With respect to social-emotional skills, it is necessary to first identify the separate concepts of emotional skills and social skills.

In general, emotional skills refer to a person's ability to understand their feelings and thought processes, to see the connection between these, and to self-regulate effectively. Social skills refer to a person's ability to interact with others. Salovey and Mayer (1990) published a seminal paper about the concept of emotional intelligence (EI), defining it as: 'the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action' (p. 189). Similarly, in 1995, Daniel Goleman spoke of the concept of emotional intelligence as the ability to recognize, understand and manage one's own and others' feelings and emotions. Later, Mayer and Salovey (1997) suggested that EI could be classified into four elements: perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions.

In terms of social skills, Schneider (1993) views these as tools to engage in appropriate social behaviour, thus enhancing one's ability to form strong interpersonal connections in a way that builds relationship. In a like manner, according to Rose-Krasnor (1997) social skills refer to the "effectiveness in interaction, considered both self and other perspectives" (p.123). Rose-Krasnor's model of social skills includes specific social, emotional and cognitive abilities, behaviours and motivations that are primarily individual.

Several studies have highlighted the connection between social and emotional skills (e.g., Bar-On, 1997; Denham et al., 2003; Rubin & Rose-Krasnor, 1992; Saarni, 1999). In 1997, Reuven Bar-On proposed an EI measurement, *Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i).* According to Bar-On model, emotional-social intelligence is "a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands" (Baron, 2006, p. 14). Furthermore, Rubin and Rose-Krasnor (1992) note that the developing child's cognitive, motor and emotional skills facilitate the development of social abilities. Similarly, through comprehensive studies regarding children's emotional development, Saarni (1999) considers that emotional skill is 'contextually anchored in social meaning' (p. 2). She proposes eight key skills that comprise social-emotional skills identified in Table 2.1.

Furthermore, Saarni (1999) notes that the effect of social-emotional skills may be seen in one's ability to regulate their emotions. Emotion regulation can be broadly defined as the process by which we influence which emotions we have, when we feel, and how we experience and

express these emotions (Gross, 1998b). Gross (2001) points out that an emotion begins with an evaluation of an emotion cue and when attended to and evaluated in certain ways, they trigger a coordinated set of responses. Once these response tendencies arise, they may be regulated in several ways. Gross (1998a) distinguished emotion regulation strategies into *antecedent-focused* and *response-focused*. Antecedent-focused strategies refer to things people do before the emotion response tendencies have become fully activated and before any behaviour changes, while response-focused strategies refer to the behaviours expressed once an emotion is felt.

Besides these general strategies, many individuals use religious practices such as prayer to regulate their negative emotions (Bremner, Koole, & Bushman, 2011; Sharp, 2010). According to Sharp and Carr (2017) people turn to prayer to regulate their negative emotions when the intensity, duration or source of negative emotions experienced makes it difficult to seek support from their immediate social network. Thus, turning to God, as a supernatural other, becomes more appropriate, comfortable and accessible. Sharp (2010) concludes that interactions with God through prayer provide individuals with an 'other' to whom they can express and vent anger and an 'other' with whom one can interact to "zone out" negative emotions. These interactions also equip individual re-interpretive cognitions that make negative conditions seem less intimidating. Image of God can provide an emotion management model to copy.

Table 2. 1

Saarni's social-emotional skills

Skills	Implication
1. Emotional self-awareness	Ability to recognise his/her own emotions
2. Identifying emotions in others	Ability to recognise other people's emotions
3. Expressing and translating emotions	Ability to articulate his/her experienced emotional states and processes
4. Empathic capacity	Engagement in other people's emotional experiences
5. Potential difference between felt and expressed emotions	Ability to understand that the experienced emotions may not reflect outward expression in self and others
6. Coping with emotions	Using self-regulatory strategies to manage aversive or distressing emotions effectively
7. Understanding emotion communication	Awareness that relationships are defined by how emotions are communicated in that relationships
8. Emotional self-efficacy	Accepting his/her own emotional experiences

Source: Adapted from Saarni (1999)

Furthermore, it has been suggested that ability to regulate one's emotions is seen as an outcome of social-emotional skills (Bar-On, 2006; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000). Saarni (1999) argues that difficulty in managing emotional-expressive behaviours is a sign of social-emotional incompetency. She also points out that people who lack social-emotional skills have a low awareness of their own emotions. These people also demonstrate inadequate understanding of others' emotional experience and impaired emotional communication within relationships.

2.2.3 Development of social-emotional skills

According to Kitzmann and Howard (2011), emotionally competent children experience both positive and negative emotions and express these in accordance with the culture and context. They also understand their own and others' emotions and are able to manage their own emotions so show them in a socially appropriate manner. Furthermore, Kitzmann and Howard acknowledge the similarities and variances in socialisation processes across diverse cultural backgrounds that proposed by Robert LeVine (1988). LeVine's study suggests that parents around the world share the same parenting goals, however to attain these goals, they are influenced by their culture.

Kitzmann and Howard (2011) found that Chinese parents tend to encourage their children to have emotional restraint, which differs from parenting in North America where children are encouraged to express their emotions. In Indonesian, Eisenberg, Liew, and Pidada (2004) suggest that well-regulated children who display low emotionality are recognised as well adjusted and socially competent by adults and peers.

In their cross-cultural comparison, Röttger-Rössler, Scheidecker, Jung, and Holodynski (2013) found that Minangkabau[4], Indonesia and Bara, Madagascar[5] people have culturally specific modes of emotional socialisation. The cultural goals of child-rearing in Minangkabau are the importance of *malu* (shame) and elimination of *marah* (anger), while in Bara are the significance of *tahotsy* (strong fear) and *seky* (anger). Parents in Minangkabau have themselves been socialised in accordance with *malu* since early toddlerhood to help them to adjust to Minangkabau cultural values and be a well-adapted Minangkabau adults.

[4] An ethnic group indigenous to Minangkabau Highland of West Sumatra, Indonesia

[5] An island country located off the coast of Southeast Africa.

In the case of Javanese culture, where the current study is set, Geertz (1959) wrote about their emotional practices. He argued that to respect other people, firstly, Javanese children learns to be *wedi* (afraid) of strangers; then, they learn to be *isin* (shy or ashamed); and finally they learn to be *sungkan* (constrained). For example, it is common for Javanese adults to guide young children to avoid undesirable behaviours as it results in other people being angry. However, adults encourage older children to be "good" because engaging in undesirable behaviours is considered shameful.

Despite the role of culture on the emotion socialisation process, many scholars hold the view that there are commonalities across culture. Kitzmann and Howard (2011) identify four processes that adults use to socialize emotion: (1) giving direct responses to the child's emotions; (2) providing example of emotion-relevant behaviour, (3) conducting dialogue about emotions with the child and (4) indirectly influencing the child by their "meta-emotion philosophy" or beliefs about emotions. From the parenting literature, Gottman et al. (1996) introduced a concept called "parental meta-emotion philosophy". They argue that the process of emotion coaching is justified to interlink with a parent's meta-emotion philosophy. According to Gottman et al. (1996), parents who demonstrate emotion coaching ability are aware to their own and/or their child's emotion. They also view the emotion as an opportunity for intimacy or teaching. These parents listen empathetically and validate the child's emotion, and also help the child to verbally label his/her emotions. Lastly, they assist their child to problem solved the situation that led to the undesirable emotion and set behavioural limits. In contrast, a dismissive meta-emotion philosophy leads parents to believe undesirable emotions such as anger or sadness are harmful to their child. Therefore, emotionally dismissive parents try to alleviate their child's undesirable emotions as quickly as possible. For example, they use distractions when their child is sad, try to fix everything and make it better, or even punish, or give time out.

Besides with family, children spend significant time with their teacher at school. Teachers are the source of emotional security for children and have an important influence on their social emotional regulation development. Several studies have investigated teachers' emotion coaching practices. Rose, Gilbert, and McGuire-Snieckus (2015) conducted a study with teachers in England who work in schools, early year settings and youth centres. They found that emotion coaching appears to promote the development of social and emotional competences and to reduce externalising behaviours among children and young people. In an Indonesian setting, a study conducted by Irene and Hendriati (2017) evaluated the

effectiveness of emotion coaching by kindergarten teachers. They found that their teacher participants showed awareness of their students' emotions. However, these teachers seemed not to validate their students' emotions and to help them to verbally label the emotions. Irene and Hendriati (2017) found that these Indonesian kindergarten teachers tend to directly help their students to solve the problem, rather than to assist their students to clarify the situation that led to the negative emotion.

Furthermore, to support the development of children's social emotional skills in an educational setting, Denham, Bassett, and Zinsser (2012) argue that there are three ways in which teachers socialise emotions. First, they provide an example to promote emotional competence. Through modeling, teachers purposely or inadvertently can coach their students about the nature of emotions, appropriate emotional expressiveness and regulation. Second, teachers intentionally teach their students about emotions by supporting understanding of emotions and by verbally explaining the meaning of emotion on particular opportunities. Through discussion, teachers assist students to feel better or to figure out ways to do so, thus giving them the tools to regulate their emotions. A final way of influencing students' emotional development is through showing supportive reactions to their emotions. Teachers' encouraging reactions to students' emotional experiences support them to be expressive about their emotions, to regulate their emotions and to build emotion knowledge. In addition, teachers' positive reactions to their students' emotions helps them to realise that emotions are manageable and even useful. Ashiabi (2000) suggests some strategies that teachers can use to promote students' emotional development, such as regularly setting aside time to help students to express their feelings.

Collie, Shapka, Perry, and Martin (2015) note that teachers' beliefs about social and emotional learning (SEL) are strongly related to their experiences of stress, efficacy beliefs about their abilities to guide their students to success. In a similar vein, Ransford, Greenberg, Domitrovich, Small, and Jacobson (2009) found that teachers who reported higher levels of burnout and the most negative perceptions about the support given to them, reported the lowest levels of teaching about SEL. On the other hand, teachers with low levels of burnout were associated with higher levels of teaching about SEL. Thus, teachers' social-emotional skills and the training and coaching programmes that are offered to them should be a core consideration to promote quality SEL programme implementation (Devaney, O'Brien, Resnik, Keister, & Weissberg, 2006; Jones, Bouffard, & Weissbourd, 2013).

Teachers, like parents, are managing emotional climates in which children learn about emotions (Mill & Romano-White, 1999). Moreover, teachers are well placed to promote positive relationships through scaffolding SEL (Anderman, Andrzejewski, & Allen, 2011; Meyer & Turner, 2002; Walberg, Zins, & Weissberg, 2004). Therefore, it stands to reason that teachers' emotion coaching practices are likely to socialise students' emotion. Given that children learn emotional knowledge from the adults around them, including their teachers, researchers recommend that teacher training programmes should focus on ways to facilitate teachers' emotional competence and coaching abilities (Ahn & Stifter, 2006; Denham et al., 2012).

2.3 The Role of Emotions in Education

The education environment creates a context for a range of emotional experiences. This section discusses teaching and learning as an emotional practice, before reviewing literature about the emotional climate of the classroom. Finally, this section describes teachers' social-emotional competencies and their emotion regulation strategies.

Historically, the role of emotions in educational settings has received scant attention in the literature. Teaching was more commonly viewed as a cognitive activity with studies focusing on teachers' beliefs, pedagogical competencies and content knowledge (e.g., Carpenter, Fennema, & Franke, 1996; Gallagher, 1991; Harris, 1998). In fact, focusing on teaching as simply instructional practice presumes that students' learning is one-dimensional. Packer (1993) takes a stand against this one-dimensional view by arguing: "Do we treat people we study as lollipops: as all brain and no body? Or do they have their feet on the ground, a ground that is both epistemological and ontological, the ground that our culture and tradition provide for each of us? We tend to forget this ground because it is always with us, but then we misunderstand what happens in educational settings" (p. 264). Packer's argument showed that teaching practice should not focus only on cognitive development, but also on the interpersonal and intrapersonal aspects that shape students' learning.

In recent years, increasing research has focused on emotions in education (e.g., Hargreaves, 1998; Nias, 1996; Schutz & Pekrun, 2007) because it is now widely accepted that emotions intertwine with cognition and are central to the work of learning and teaching(Hargreaves, 2001). Based on Vygotsky's (1978) theory about the zone of proximal development and Noddings' (1992) argument that students establish stronger attitudes for learning when

guided by a caring, moral teacher, Goldstein (1999) argues that "the zone of proximal development is also a region of affective development – a relational zone" (p. 664). Goldstein (2002) points out that any effort to create a student's zone of proximal development should comprise not only the understanding of students' learning strengths (the intellectual focus) but also pay attention to the affective caring interactions (the relational focus) that supports students' learning and development.

Undoubtedly, affective states involve understanding emotion (Jensen, 2005). Thus, the association between emotions and the cognitive and social processes of learning becomes visible. For example, Pekrun, Goetz, Titz, and Perry (2002) found that students' emotions in an academic setting are significantly related to their motivations, learning strategies, cognitive resources, self-regulation skills and academic achievements. In a similar vein, the few studies linking positive emotions to academic achievement indicate that hope, joy and pride positively correlate with students' academic self-efficacy, academic interest, effort and overall achievement (Pekrun et al., 2004). By contrast, negative achievement emotions such as boredom and frustration are linked to truancy, higher school behaviour problem and a decrease in students' engagement (Turner & Waugh, 2007). In addition, Pekrun, Lichtenfeld, Marsh, Murayama, and Goetz (2017) found the reciprocal effects linking emotion and achievement. They found that positive emotions (e.g., enjoyment, pride) positively predicted subsequent academic achievement, and that achievement positively predicted these emotions. Similarly, negative emotions (e.g., anger, shame, anxiety, hopelessness, boredom) negatively predicted achievement, and lack of achievement predicted these negative emotions (Pekrun et al., 2017).

The lack of research on emotions is noticeable in research focused on teachers. However, emotions are central to the work of teaching (Hargreaves, 1998; Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006). Emotions are related to every aspect of teachers' work, professional identity, learning and wellbeing; and emotions are also associated with teachers' burnout and attrition rates. Further, Becker, Goetz, Morger, and Ranellucci (2014) suggest that teachers' emotions have an important impact on students' emotions. It has even been argued that students' emotional responses are related to their teachers' emotional responses (Mottet & Beebe, 2000).

Two main reasons can be put forward as to why conducting research on teachers' emotions is significant for education. The first reason relates to the intensity of teachers' experiences of a variety of emotions. In their study of teachers' emotions, Sutton and Wheatley (2003) identify emotions that are often felt by teachers, such as love, care, affection, joy, satisfaction, pleasure,

pride, excitement, enthusiasm, exhilarating and humour. Teachers experience many positive emotions when they achieve and felt supported by colleagues and parents. Sutton and Wheatley (2003) also conclude that anger, frustration, anxiety, helplessness, guilt and sadness are undesirable emotions frequently felt by teachers. Teachers also experience a range of undesirable emotions which are linked to decreased intrinsic motivation, pleasure and interest in teaching (Pekrun et al., 2002). Secondly, teachers' emotions and emotional bonds formed with their students have been shown to inform their teaching practice. Teachers' decisions about teaching strategies and lesson planning are made on an affective-relational basis. Accordingly, teaching quality depends on teachers' positive emotions and the established relationship that impact these emotions (Hargreaves, 2005).

With research determining that teaching contains more than a cognitive foci, understanding the emotional element of teaching becomes paramount. To understand how emotions shape teaching and learning processes, there must first be an understanding of teaching as an emotional practice. A more detailed account of the emotional practice of teaching is given in the following section.

2.3.1 Teaching as an emotional practice

Teaching and learning are not only concerned with knowledge, cognition and skill, according to Hargreaves (1998), teaching is also an emotional practices. Denzin (1984) argues that an emotional practice is "an embedded practice that produces for the person, an expected or unexpected emotional alteration in the inner and outer streams of experience" (p. 89). In defining emotional practice, Hargreaves emphasises Denzin's definition in his argument that teachers must recognise the emotions of their students to make instructional decisions and to interact successfully. Hargreaves (1998) points out that as an emotional practice, teaching activates, colours and expresses the teachers' feelings and behaviours. As an emotional practice, teaching also affects the feelings and behaviours of others with whom teachers work and form relationships.

Furthermore, teaching also necessarily encompasses and depends on extensive emotional understanding (Hargreaves, 1998). According to Denzin (1984), emotional understanding "is an intersubjective process requiring that one person enter into the field of experience of another an experience for herself the same or similar experiences experienced by another" (p. 137). Emotional understanding, for Hargreaves, Earl, Moore, and Manning (2001), is historical in nature because it is formed through interpreting a current situation in light of past

emotional experience. Hargreaves et al. (2001) illustrated this concept by reporting how the primary and secondary teachers participating in their study sought to develop emotional understanding with their students. They argued that developing emotional understanding "was central to how they taught. . . how they evaluated. . . what kind of curricula they planned and selected . . . and what kinds of structure they adopted as a context for teaching (Hargreaves et al., 2001, p. 144).

Creating emotional understanding simultaneously includes forming relationships as argued by Hargreaves et al. (2001) where "emotional engagement and understanding in schools (as elsewhere) require strong, continuous relationships between teachers and students so that they learn to read each other over time" (p. 138). In his classic review, Macmurray (1964) reminds us that "teaching is one of the foremost of personal relations" (p 17). He continues that the successful relationship between the teacher and students "must be a relation in which two human beings meet, like one another, care for one another, help one another" (p 17). Caring, according to Hargreaves et al. (2001), is one way of demonstrating emotional understanding. In the same vein, Noddings (1992) reminds us that "caring is the very bedrock of all successful education" (p. 27). Furthermore, primary teaching has been theorised by Nias (1999) as a 'culture of care' (p. 66). She categorised six aspects of the culture of care in primary teaching: care as affectivity, as responsibility for learners, as responsibility for the relationships in the school, as self-sacrifice, as over-conscientiousness and as identity. Nias' work is complemented by Woods (1990) who claims that primary school teachers have to deal with the tensions between developing strong affective relationships with their students and having to instruct and control them. He found that 'affective attachment' is a crucial element of being a primary school teacher, and he argues that '*in loco parentis*' is viewed by primary school teachers as taking on a caring role akin to parental interactions.

It is important to note that teaching as emotional practices does not mean that teaching is only about emotional practice. Feeling and thinking, emotion and cognition combine together in all social practices in complex ways (Oatley, 1992). However, teaching is irretrievably emotional in nature (Salzberger-Wittenberg, Henry, & Osborne, 1983). Understanding the emotional classroom climate is, therefore, a crucial component of an attempt to comprehend the role of emotions in teaching and learning. This point aligns with Brackett, Reyes, Rivers, Elbertson, and Salovey (2011) who argue that academic goals cannot be fulfilled unless they are undertaken in a socially and emotionally positive environment. Similarly, Noddings (2012) claims that a climate in which caring relations can flourish should be an objective for all

teachers and educational policymaker. A more detail account of a beneficial classroom climate is given in the following section.

2.3.2 Emotional climate of a classroom

School climate can broadly be defined as shared values, beliefs and attitudes that shape interaction between students, teachers and school staff (Emmons, Comer, & Haynes, 1996). Early educational reformers, such as Dewey (1916), Durkheim (1961) and A. C. Perry (1908) acknowledged that the distinctive culture of a school affects students' learning and life chances. Some studies indicate that school climate and classroom climate influence each other (Purkey & Smith, 1983; Van der Sijde, 1987). However, according to Koth, Bradshaw, and Leaf (2008), climate at the classroom-level influences students' views of the school atmosphere. In addition, compared to school climate, classroom climate has more effect to students' behaviours (Mooij, 1998).

Research on classroom climate, which broadly defined as the social psychological environment for learning (Fraser, 1994), began as early as 1936 when Kurt Lewin documented that both the environment and its interaction with personal characteristics of the individual were determinants of human behaviour. Building on Lewin's findings, H. A. Murray (1938) identified a needs-press model of interaction. Accordingly, personal *needs* represent tendencies to move in the direction of certain goals, while environmental *press* provides external situational counterpart that supports or confronts the expression of internalised personal needs. Thus, situational variables found in the classroom environment may account for a significant amount of behavioural variance.

To identify these situational variables, researchers began to develop rating scales designed to measure classroom climate. The studies of Anderson and Walberg (1967) and Walberg and Anderson (1968) formed a starting point. Walberg developed the Learning Environment Inventory (LEI) which can be used to describe the nature of interpersonal relationships in the class and also its structural characteristics. A form of the LEI includes 15 scales: apathy, challenge, cliquishness, cohesiveness, competition, diversity, democracy, disorganisation, favouritism, formality, friction, goal direction, physical environment, speed and satisfaction (Fraser, Anderson, & Walberg, 1982). In a similar vein, Moos developed the Classroom Environment Scale (CSE) (Moos & Trickett, 1974; Trickett & Moos, 1973) which consists of nine subscales: affiliation, competition, innovation, involvement, order and organisation, rule clarity, support, tack orientation and teacher control. Both of these scales appear to compile

key classroom environment situations affecting students' learning, such as relationship, competition and organisation.

Byrne, Hattie, and Fraser (1986) suggest that the ideal classroom climate is one that is "conducive to maximum learning and achievement" (p. 10). Jennings and Greenberg (2009) point out that a healthy classroom climate contributes to students' social, academic and emotional outcomes. This view is supported by other scholars who also identify the correlation between classroom climate and various students' learning outcomes. LaRocque (2008) examined primary school students' perception of their classroom environment and found that perceptions of the classroom environment were significantly associated with achievement. Jia et al. (2009) explored middle school students' perception of the three dimensions of school climate (teacher support, student-student support and opportunities for autonomy in the classroom) and found a positive correlation between teacher support and students' self-esteem and academic achievement, and a negative correlation between teacher support and students' depressive symptoms. Similarly, Raskauskas, Gregory, Harvey, Rifshana, and Evans (2010) examined the relationships between bullying, prosocial behaviour and classroom climate among Years 4-8 students in New Zealand and found that classroom climate is related to higher levels of prosocial behaviour. Moreover, Reyes, Brackett, Rivers, White, and Salovey (2012) reported a direct positive relationship between students' reporting of classroom emotional climate and their academic achievement. This association between classroom climate and students' learning indicates that classroom climate needs to be highly relevant topic of research in educational psychology.

Pianta, La Paro, and Hamre (2008) classify classroom climate as: (1) classroom *emotional* climate, the extent to which teachers encourage positive emotions and make students feel comfortable, (b) classroom *instructional* climate, the extent to which teachers implement lessons that develop higher-order thinking and (c) classroom *organisational* climate, the extent to which teachers arrange students' time effectively. Hamre and Pianta (2007) argue that classrooms with positive emotional climate have teachers who are responsive to their students' needs, and who take their students' perspectives into account. These authors also indicate that the teachers' warmth, caring, nurturing impacts the relationships which impacts the climate. By contrast, classrooms with a negative emotional climate are ones in which teachers and students share little emotional connection and regularly disrespect, ignore, humiliate, provoke, threaten, or even physically attack to each other.

This triadic view is supported by I. M. Evans, Harvey, Buckley, and Yan (2009) who identify three components of classroom climate: academic, management and emotional. Furthermore, Evans and these researchers argue that the emotional domain interfaces with other classroom climate domains. Therefore, the emotional domain of effective learning environment is super-ordinate to academic and management domains. Harvey and Evans (2003) developed a model of the emotional classroom climate as interpreted by teachers and students in primary and secondary schools. They proposed that classroom emotional climate relates to three contexts: the teacher, the teacher with each of the students and the interaction between the teacher and whole class. These three contexts are linked across six core emotion concepts: emotional relationship, emotional awareness, emotional management, emotional intrapersonal beliefs, emotional interpersonal guidelines and emotional contagion (Harvey et al., 2012). This model is shown in Figure 2.1.

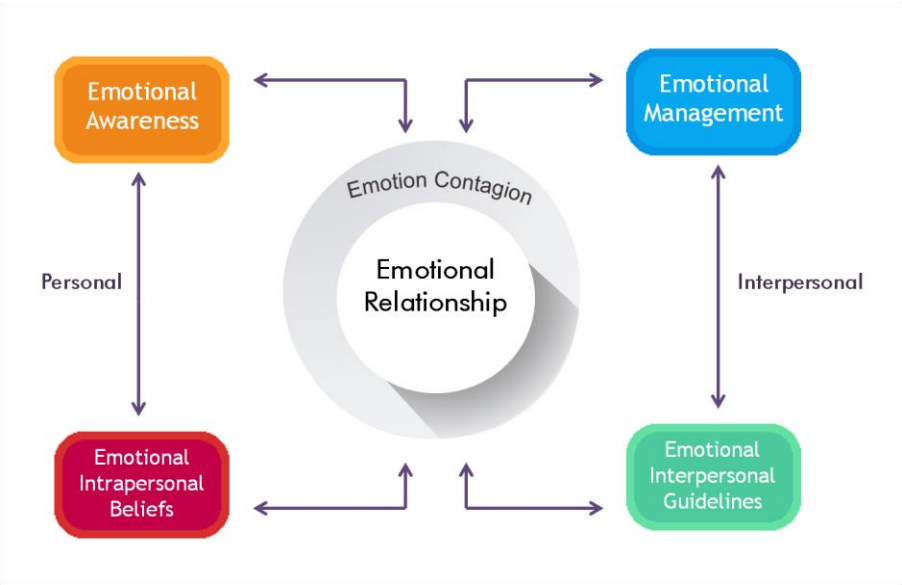

Figure 2. 1. Proposed model of the classroom emotional climate dimensions from Harvey. Bimler, Kirkland, & Petchel (2012).

The work of Harvey et al. (2012) was expanded in similar studies conducted across different populations. For instance, Chia (2014) conducted her study with adult polytechnic students in Singapore, Han (2016) administered her study in Korean middle-school, while Edwards, Harvey, and Bimler (2018) conducted a study with New Zealand secondary school students and Asian students enrolled in an ESOL (English as a Second Language) course. Together, these researchers developed new understandings of the classroom emotional environment, leading to the development of a measure that can assess the variety of practices used by

teachers that have an emotional impact to students. Research has since suggested that these social-emotional practices can be structurally arranged using Multidimensional Scaling (MDS), such as in my study, methods to understand how they interrelatedly contribute to the classroom emotional environment. The key themes of teachers' social-emotional practices identified by these researchers mostly aligned with Harvey et al.'s findings, as outlined in Table 2.2. Although there were some differences, broad themes such as relationship-building, interpersonal guidelines, emotion contagion and emotion coaching were found consistently across all four studies as being central to understanding the classroom emotional environment. Harvey et al.'s (2012), Chia's (2014), Han's (2016), Edwards et al.'s (2018) studies receive particular attention in this review, as they are foundational to the focus and analysis of my study.

Various approaches have been used to explore the nature of classroom climate. These approaches include classroom observations (Howes, 2000; Leff et al., 2011), teachers' self-reports (Le, Lockwood, Stecher, Hamilton, & Martinez, 2009) and students' focus group discussion (Andersen, Evans, & Harvey, 2012). According to Fraser and Walberg (2005), students and teachers perceive classroom climate differently, with teachers typically perceiving it more positively than their students. Similarly, Desimone, Smith, and Frisvold (2010) in their comparison study of students' perceptions and teachers' self-reporting, identified that while both groups reported similar practices such as discussing learning material in small group, the teachers revealed greater frequency of using such practices than their students. While research exploring classroom climate in Indonesia has been carried out in junior secondary (Puspitasari, 2013; Suprayogi, 2010) and senior secondary school level (Hadinata, 2012; Limpo, Oetomo, & Suprapto, 2013), there is still very little scientific understanding of classroom climate in an Indonesian primary school context.

Even at primary school age, children are aware of and actively observe emotion in their interactions with teachers (Andersen et al., 2012). As noted by (Fraser, 1998, 2001), students' opinions of their class are based on knowledge of the participants themselves and are the reaction of a relatively long period of classroom environment exposure. Andersen et al. (2012) also argue that children are able to verbally describe connections between their teachers' emotions, the effect of this on the teachers' behaviours and the impact the teachers' behaviours on their own emotions and behaviours. Their findings demonstrate that even at a young age, teachers' emotional interactions with their students can have significant impacts on students' emotions and learning. However, no study in an Indonesian context has before

explored primary school students' views of their teachers' social-emotional practices or the relationships between these practices and these students' social-emotional outcomes. My study seeks to address these knowledge gaps.

2.3.3 Teachers' social-emotional skills

The previous section has shown that classroom emotional climate is a major influence on students' behaviour and learning. Previous studies also showed that students' learning environments are mainly shaped by the classroom teacher (Eccles & Roeser, 1999) as they set the tone the classroom interaction (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Harvey and Evans (2003) conclude that teachers who sustain a positive emotional classroom climate show high social-emotional skills. Teachers' social-emotional skills or deficiency thereof can significantly improve or harm the classroom emotional climate quality.

Before discussing teachers' social emotional skills, it is essential to examine their emotional intelligence. According to C. Perry and Ball (2008), teachers with high emotional intelligence are willing to receive or acknowledge positive feedback. These teachers are also able to accept negative emotions, taking a reflective approach to negative situations and finding and implementing an effective strategy to move forward. Lastly, these high emotional intelligence teachers show abilities to manage themselves in complex teaching situations. Teachers' emotional intelligence can be trained and developed. Previous studies confirm the effectiveness of emotional intelligence training to improve teachers' relationships with colleagues, parents and students (Brackett & Katulak, 2006) and also to enhance their empathy or perspective-taking (Hen & Sharabi-Nov, 2014).

Table 2. 2.

Themes of teachers' social-emotional practices identified in past studies

Broad Themes	Harvey et al., (2012)	Chia (2014)	Han (2016)	Edwards et al., (2018)	
				NZ Sample	ESOL Sample
Relationship-building	Emotional relationship	Teacher-student relationship Student-student support	Relationship-building Fostering supportive relationships/ environment	Warm & caring teacher-student relationship Develops strong classroom community	Warm, caring & attentive teacher-student relationship Develops strong classroom community Strong reciprocities within the classroom community
Interpersonal guidelines/ boundaries	Interpersonal guidelines	Emotional boundaries	Classroom management	Positive boundaries & classroom management	
Emotion contagion	Emotion contagion	Emotion contagion	Emotion contagion	Impact of teacher on sense of self	
Emotional coaching	Emotional coaching	Emotional coaching	Emotional coaching	Emotional coaching	Emotional coaching
Emotion regulation	Emotional regulation Emotional self-acceptance			Teacher's own emotion regulation	Emotion management (own and classroom)
Attitudes	Emotional philosophy Emotional attitude	Emotional attitude	Attitude to teaching		Positive engagement with the teaching role
Awareness	Emotional awareness			Attentive to students' emotions and needs	
Others		Teacher emotional characteristics Relationship forming behaviours/warmth Academic preparation/provides necessary support		Positive personal qualities of teacher Pedagogical strategies to promote learning	Positive personal qualities of teacher Pedagogical strategies to promote learning

Jennings and Greenberg (2009) propose a model of teacher social-emotional skills and classroom and students' learning outcomes. They argue that firstly, teachers need to have excellent social-emotional skills and wellbeing to understand students' emotions and cognitions and to respond effectively to their individual needs. Secondly, teachers' social emotional skills and wellbeing are vital contributors to effective classroom management. Teachers with high social emotional skills tend to be more proactive, use their emotional expression and verbal support effectively to promote joyful learning and to regulate students' behaviours. Thirdly, teachers with high social emotional skills and wellbeing are excellent role models of positive social and emotional behaviour which is important to implement social and emotional learning (SEL). Subsequently, there is likely to be a transactional relationship between these three skills and a healthy classroom climate. Finally, the healthy classroom climate potentially contributes to students' social, emotional and academic outcomes.

Jennings and Greenberg (2009) point out that when teachers lack social and emotional skills, they are less able to tackle social and emotional challenges that occur in the classroom, impairing students' performance and on-task behaviour, and leading to an escalation in challenging student behaviours. Then, the classroom emotional climate turns negative. Sequentially, teachers can become emotionally exhausted and adopt punitive discipline practices. This downward spiral is referred to by Jennings and Greenberg as a burnout cascade.

A large and growing body of literature has investigated the characteristics of effective teachers, either based on teachers' or students' perspectives. Studies in this field identified that teachers' social-emotional skills relate to the qualities of effective teachers. Teachers were considered to be effective if they have positive social-emotional skills including being *'friendly'* (Beishuizen, Hof, Putten, Bouwmeester, & Asscher, 2001; Bland & Sleightholme, 2012), *'patient'* (Cheung, Cheng, & Pang, 2008; S. Murray, 2011), *'cheerful'* or *'humorous'* (Arikan, Taser, & Saraç-Süzer, 2008; Läänemets, Kalamees-Ruubel, & Sepp, 2012), *'understanding of students' feelings'* (Stronge, 2007), *'caring'* (Alqahtani, Kanasa, Garrick, & Grootenboer, 2016; Stronge, 2007) and *'able to manage their emotions'* (Hosotani & Imai-Matsumura, 2011). In contrast, teachers who are cold, abusive and uncaring are considered to be ineffective teachers (Walls, Nardi, von Minden, & Hoffman, 2002). These findings affiliate with a person-centred of relational approach which hypothesises that people learn best with teachers who are perceived as empathetic, warm and genuine (Rogers, 1982).

A classic study carried out by Aspy and Roebuck (1976) explored the kinds of teacher attitudes and behaviours that were correlated with various kind of learning outcomes. They found a

clear correlation between teachers' realness, respect for students and an understanding of the meaning of classroom experience for the students. These 'facilitative conditions' tend to demonstrate specific behaviours such as being self-disclosing to their students, responsive to their feelings and ideas and praising their effort to learn. Aspy and Roebuck argued that teachers can develop their facilitative responses with carefully planned intensive training, pointing out that teachers improve in these attitudes only when their trainers display a high level of the facilitative conditions as well.

Promoting teachers' social-emotional skills is, therefore, not simply about intellectual learning. These skills are developed experientially with other people who are adept at social-emotional interactions. Surprisingly, teachers rarely receive specific training to develop their social-emotional skills to equip them to address social-emotional issues in the classroom (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Although extensive research has been carried out on students' social-emotional development, far too little attention has been paid to teachers' own social-emotional development. Dedicated ongoing investigations, such as my study, are required to explore the nature teachers' social-emotional skills.

2.3.4 Emotional labour and emotion regulation

As Hargreaves (1998) pointed out, teaching is an emotional labour. The construct of emotional labour was first articulated by Hochschild (1983) and popularised in his book: *The Managed Heart: The Commercialization of Feeling*. He defined emotional labour as "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display" (p. 7). Ten years later, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) formulated their theory of emotional labour and proposed that emotional labour was an observable behaviour not a management of feelings. In contrast to Hochschild (1983), Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) preferred to use the term *display rules* or "what emotions ought to be publicly expressed" (p. 89) rather than *feeling rules*. In 1996, Morris and Feldman extended previous studies on emotional labour and proposed that emotional labour consists of four dimensions: (a) frequency of appropriate emotional display, (b) attentiveness to required display rules, (c) variety of emotions to be displayed, and (d) emotional dissonance. Grandey (2000) synthesised the findings on the constructs of emotional labour and proposed an operational definition: "emotional labour is the process of regulating both feelings and expressions for the organizational goals" (p. 97). In her view, emotion regulation theory (Gross, 1998a, 1998b) provides a very useful guiding framework for

emotional labour, as all notions of emotional labour have the same underlying theme, that is, individuals can regulate their emotions at work.

Gross' model of emotion regulation strategies has had a strong influence on research about teachers' emotion regulation. His classification of emotion regulation strategies has guided educational researchers (e.g., Gong, Chai, Duan, Zhong, & Jiao, 2013; Jiang, Vauras, Volet, & Wang, 2016; Sutton, 2004) to categorise teachers' emotion regulation strategies. Table 2.3 summaries the emotion regulation strategies used by teachers as identified by Gong, Chai, Duan, Zhong, and Jiao (2013), Jiang, Vauras, Volet, and Wang (2016) and Sutton (2004).

Despite the similarity of emotion regulation strategies used by teachers' from several countries, these strategies relate to the notion of display rules which was first introduced by Ekman and Friesen (1969). Display rules, such as to look affectless or neutral and to mask the felt affect can be defined as socially learned rules that guide the management of emotional expression based on social circumstances (Ekman & Friesen, 1969; Matsumoto, Takeuchi, Andayani, Kouznetsova, & Krupp, 1998).

A number of studies revealed a link between teachers' cultural backgrounds and their emotional regulation strategies and expression. Yin and Lee (2012) found that Chinese teachers were likely to hide negative emotions and maintain positive emotions. Similarly, instead of restraining their anger or reflecting it out, Turkish pre-service classroom teachers with high emotional intelligence tend to control it (Sahin Baltaci & Demir, 2012). In contrast, Hosotani and Imai-Matsumura (2011) reported that high-quality Japanese elementary school teachers can intentionally express anger and sadness towards students depending on the situation and purpose. So far, however, there has been very little scientific understanding of teachers' emotion regulation strategies used by the Indonesian teachers. This present study purposes to fill this gap in our understanding.

Table 2. 3.

Teachers' emotion regulation strategies before, in and after classroom

Strategies	When the strategy is used	Examples of strategies
Situation selection	Before class	– Change the class schedule
	In class	– Walk to another group and continue teaching – Avoid talking to students when feeling angry
Situation modification	Before class	– Prepare/revise lessons – Design some questions for the class – Tell students that he/she is not well
	In class	– Use specific teaching or management strategy – Modulate the tempo – Tell a joke – Talk with students with misbehaviours
Attention deployment	Before class	– Talk to colleague – Think positive thoughts – Get to school early
	In class	– Divert attention – Do something else – Focusing on the students' maturity and interest in studies
Response modulation	Before class	– Hide in mind – Breathe deeply – Relax for a while
	In class	– Control and suppress down – Pretend to be very sad
Cognitive strategies	In class	– Self-talk – Empathy – Reappraisal
	After class	– Talk to peers, family and friends – Do an intellectual hobby – Prepare for tomorrow's classes
Behavioural strategies	In class	– Physically withdraw – Get quite – Control facial features
	After class	– Sit in quite place – Exercise

2.4 Teacher-Student Relationships

Burgeoning literature shows the importance of understanding the influence teacher-student relationships on students' learning and development (Baker, 2006; Hamre & Pianta, 2001).

This section reviews literature on the nature of teacher and student relationships, to reveal the influences of teacher-student relationships on students' learning and development.

One major aspect of Vygotsky's (1978) theory is the idea that the potential for cognitive development depends upon the zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky (1978) define the ZPD as: "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 86). Vygotsky argued that the development of the ZPD depends upon full social interaction. Similarly, Goldstein (1999) concluded that the affective qualities of teacher-student relationships allow the ZPD to take shape. This view is supported by Rogoff (1990) – a sociocultural researcher - who wrote: "understanding happens between people; it can't be attributed to one individual or the other" (p. 67). According to Rogoff (1998), individual development is a social and cultural process that it contributes to and is constituted by sociocultural activities in which people participate. Furthermore, Rogoff (2003) notes that development occurs on three interacting planes of impact, including the personal (i.e., the individual child), interpersonal (interactions among social partners) and community/institutional (contextual). Collectively, these concepts suggest that students' learning and development is inherently relational.

As primary school students spend around six hours at school, teachers engage in multiple roles that support students' learning. Thus, the quality of relationships with teachers is essential to shape students' academic, social and emotional development (Pianta, 1999). Pianta and colleagues have conducted numerous studies exploring the nature and quality of teacher-student relationships (e.g., Pianta & Nimetz, 1991; Pianta & Steinberg, 1992). In their study, Pianta and Nimetz (1991) examined the utility of the Student-Teacher Relationship Scale (Pianta, 1988), a scale designed to assess the quality of student-teacher relationship according to the teacher's perspective. The findings of their study indicated that teacher-student relationship was related to the type of attachment the children had formed with their mothers. Pianta and Nimetz also found that secure teacher-child relationships in kindergarten are associated with competent behaviour in that classroom and fewer problems in first year classrooms. Further, Pianta and Steinberg (1992) examined the dimensions associated with teacher-student relationship using the Student-Teacher Relationship Scale. The resulting factor structure of the scale proposed that the teacher-student relationship has emotional (e.g., warm and conflicted) and involvement (e.g., dependent and open) dimensions along

which the relationship is experienced. Specifically, their findings suggest that the teacher-student relationship is organised around positive and negative affect as well as an amount of involvement.

The quality of the teacher-student relationship is usually conceptualised and measured as two distinct but related dimensions: closeness and conflict (Rudasill, Reio, Stipanovic, & Taylor, 2010). Closeness represents the level of support and warmth between teacher and student and also as the student's willingness to approach and engage the teacher, whereas conflict represent the existing negativity between teacher and student (Ladd & Burgess, 2001). Positive relationships between teachers and their students are characterised by closeness and on the other hand, negative relationships are characterised by high levels of conflict, lack of rapport, negative emotions and discordant interactions (Birch & Ladd, 1998; Pianta, 2001).

Furthermore, attachment theory plays a comparative role in teacher-student relationships as it does with parents (Pianta, Hamre, & Stuhlman, 2003; Verschueren & Koomen, 2012). Denham (1998) suggested that children in need of emotional attachment might seek it from any source possible, including teachers. Similarly, Koomen and Hoeksma (2003) found the role of kindergarten teachers as a safe haven and a secure base by showing high initial scores for child security seeking at school entry and sharp decreases in the weeks thereafter. Thus, teacher-student relationships may have an "attachment component" (Cassidy, 2008, p. 14) and teachers may serve the function of temporary attachment figure (Zajac & Kobak, 2006). However, although students may show attachment behaviours toward their teacher, this does not mean that student have a total attachment bond with their teachers (Ainsworth, 1989; Cassidy, 2008). Attachment, according to Ainsworth (1989) is characterised as a "relatively long-enduring tie in which the partner is important as a unique individual and is interchangeable with none other" (p. 711). Teacher-student relationships tend to be less exclusive, as students share their primary school teacher with many others in the classroom and usually, they change teachers every school year.

A number of studies have confirmed that at primary school level, positive teacher-student relationships are connected to students' successful school adjustment (Baker, 2006) and academic achievement (Hajovsky, Mason, & McCune, 2017; McCormick & O'Connor, 2015). By contrast, negative teacher-student relationships in primary school level are associated with students' poor self-direction, low academic achievement, low school connectedness (Birch & Ladd, 1997). A longitudinal study in children from kindergarten level through Year 8 showed that their negative relationships with teachers are predictive of poor academic achievement

and work habits through the middle years of primary level and behaviour problems through secondary school (Hamre & Pianta, 2001). In addition, data from several studies suggest that adolescents' high-quality relationships with teachers are related to positive outcomes such as psychological wellbeing (Herrero, Estévez, & Musitu, 2006), responsibility (Wentzel, 1998) and school engagement (Zimmer-Gembeck, Chipuer, Hanisch, Creed, & McGregor, 2006). On the other hand, Kobak, Herres, Gaskins, and Laurenceau (2012) identified that adolescents' negative interactions with teachers predicted increased sexual risk-taking behaviours and females' early romantic involvement. These studies clearly indicate that students who have positive relationships with their teacher are more likely to achieved and to behave responsibly, which therefore are less likely to engage in risky behaviours.

A few studies documented that teachers' responsiveness and involvement (Howes & Segal, 1993) and teachers' attachment histories with their primary caregiver (Kesner, 2000) predicted the quality of teacher-student relationships. Jina S Yoon (2002) found that teachers' stress does not only affect teachers' general attitude toward teaching, but also it is likely to influence the quality of their relationships with students. Yoon argue that teachers who experience high levels of stress may exhibit anger and hostility in their interactions with students, and thus experience negative relationships with them. However, investigative efforts specific to teachers' behaviours and characteristics that may affect the quality of teacher-student relationships, including in an Indonesian context are scarce in the current literature. This condition indicates a need to understand the association between the Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices and teacher-student relationships.

2.5 Connectedness with School

Connectedness to school during childhood has emerged as a key area for building protective factors for positive academic and social-emotional outcomes (Battistich, Schaps, & Wilson, 2004; Rice, Kang, Weaver, & Howell, 2008). A brief explanation of feelings of belonging is made in this section, before reviewing the principal findings of the current studies about school connectedness and its association with students' learning and development.

Baumeister and Leary (1995) argue that feelings of belonging are an essential human need and all individuals are naturally motivated to connect with others and form social bonds. They point out that negative impacts such as psychological distress and health problems result when individuals are not socially connected. In the same vein, Deci and Ryan (2000)

proposed a self-determination theory showing that human behaviour is motivated by three crucial needs: competency, autonomy and relatedness. The need for relatedness or the innate human desire to form secure and supportive relational networks in various environmental context is relevant to children's feelings of connectedness to school because school is a primary environmental context for children. Furthermore, developing students' school connectedness is critical for promoting positive academic outcomes (Davis, 2003; Furrer & Skinner, 2003).

School connectedness is a multidimensional concept exhibited at emotional, behavioural and cognitive levels (Chapman, Buckley, Sheehan, & Shochet, 2013). At the emotional level, students feel safe and personally connected, supported and respected by the teachers and peers at the school. At the behavioural level, school connectedness implicates the students' significant engagement with the school activities and having a voice in important decisions. Finally, at the cognitive level, the students have positive beliefs and values about their school. In general, school connectedness can broadly be defined as 'the extent to which students feel personally accepted, respected, included and supported by others in the school social environment' (Goodenow, 1993, p. 80).

Subsequent studies have supported the notion that students' sense of connectedness at school is an important factor for their academic outcomes. Mann, Smith, and Kristjansson (2015) designed a programme to support struggling school students to develop resilience. Their study shows that school connectedness promotes students' academic achievement and self-efficacy. Similarly, middle school students tend to maintain higher academic motivation and interest when they perceive their teachers to be helpful and emotionally supportive, and to provide of a safe classroom environment and show clear expectations for student behaviour (Wentzel, Battle, Russell, & Looney, 2010). In addition, Catalano, Oesterle, Fleming, and Hawkins (2004) in their longitudinal study found that students who report higher levels of bonding to school (i.e., attachment to school and commitment to school tasks) not only have higher grades and achievement test scores but are also less likely to repeat a grade or dropout of high school. These studies clearly indicate that there is a strong relationship between students' sense of connectedness at school and their adjustment and achievement.

Students' feeling of connectedness is thought to be a protective factor against emotional distress and risky behaviours. Niehaus, Irvin, and Rogelberg (2016) conducted their study among Latino students and found that school connectedness contributed to greater high school completion and post-secondary attendance through higher behavioural engagement.

Other research has shown that school connectedness is one of the strongest protective factors for youth high-risk behaviours, such as substance abuse, suicide and violence (Chung-Do, Goebert, Chang, & Hamagani, 2015; Marraccini & Brier, 2017). Further, Chapman, Buckley, Sheehan, Shochet, and Romaniuk (2011) identified that school connectedness is a protective factor for risk taking behaviours extending beyond the school setting.

Han's (2016) study among Korean students found that teachers' social-emotional practices are significantly associated with students' feelings of connectedness to their teacher and the school. Her study indicates that different expressions of teachers' social-emotional behaviours are likely to have different effects on students' feelings of connectedness. A combination of high emotional and behavioural coaching and relationship-building actions may be linked with students' feeling of connectedness with their teachers (Han, 2016). Han also found that a combination of high emotional and behavioural coaching and engaged attitudes to teaching was positively associated with students' feelings of connectedness with their schools. Research to date has not yet determined the relationships between Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices and students' feelings of connectedness in an Indonesian context. This study aims to address this knowledge gap.

2.6 Students' Feelings of Wellbeing

Children's wellbeing is a vitally important area of research. This section critically reviews the literature about wellbeing in general and specifiacally students' feelings of wellbeing in a school context. In so doing, it focuses on how teachers have intentionally promoted students' feelings of wellbeing.

There are two basic approaches adopted in research about wellbeing: hedonic and eudaimonic (R. M. Ryan & Deci, 2001). These authors argue that the hedonic approach focuses on happiness and defines wellbeing in terms of pleasure attainment and pain avoidance, while the eudaimonic approach focuses on meaning and self-realisation and defines wellbeing in terms of the degree to which a person is fully functioning. According to Exenberger and Juen (2013), the terms of hedonic and eudaimonic date back to ancient Greek times when hedonism or the experience of pleasure was proposed by the philosopher Aristippus as an important aim in life, whereas eudaimonia was thought of in terms of having good fortune. More recently, hedonic wellbeing is considered to be subjective and eudaimonia is considered to be psychological. According to Diener (2000), subjective wellbeing is about life satisfaction

(global judgments of one's life), satisfaction with important domain (e.g., work satisfaction), positive affect (experiencing many pleasant emotions and moods) and low levels of negative affect (experiencing few unpleasant emotions and moods). By contrast, Ryff and Keyes (1995) suggest that the formulation of psychological wellbeing consists of positive self-regard, mastery of the surrounding environment, quality relations with others, continued growth and development, purposeful living and the capacity for self-determination.

Historically, research efforts have focused on asking adults about their wellbeing than children. However, in recent years, there has been an increasing interest in children's wellbeing topic. A systematic review on children's wellbeing was conducted by Pollard and Lee (2003), who then pointed out that there was an inconsistent use of definitions, indicators and measures of child's wellbeing. These authors also note that a child's wellbeing is often framed within a deficit model rather than a strengths based model. They describe a child's wellbeing as consisting of five dimensions: physical, economic, psychological, cognitive and social.

In preparing children for their future lives it is important that educators, researchers and policymakers strive for maximum levels of wellbeing. A child's wellbeing cannot be viewed in isolation from the school context as children spend most of their waking hours at school. Ruus et al. (2007) argue that school, as a living and learning environment, is not only accountable for students' academic success but also for students' optimistic tolerance of life, physiological and psychological wellbeing. In the same vein, Weissberg and O'Brien (2004) describe the broad mission of schools as developing students who are knowledgeable, responsible, healthy, caring, connected and contributing. Collectively, these studies point to the responsibility of schools to take an integrated approach to students' social, emotional and academic learning.

Noble, Wyatt, Carbines, and Robb (2008) define student wellbeing as "a sustainable state of positive mood and attitude, resilience and satisfaction with self, relationships and experiences at school" (p. 7). This view is supported by Fraillon (2004) who classified students wellbeing into two dimensions: intrapersonal and interpersonal. The intrapersonal dimension includes those aspects of wellbeing such as emotional regulation, resilience, self-efficacy, self-esteem, spirituality, primarily manifest in a student's internalised sense of self and capacity to function in their school community. The intrapersonal dimension includes those aspects of wellbeing primarily manifest in a student's appraisal of their social circumstances and consequent capacity to function in their school community such as empathy, acceptance and connectedness.

Konu and Rimpelä (2002) proposed a conceptual model of wellbeing in schools. Their model is based on Allardt's (1976) theory of welfare which consists of three aspects: having, loving and being. Indicators of school wellbeing are divided into four elements: school conditions (having), social relationships (loving), means for self-fulfilment (being) and health status (Konu & Rimpelä, 2002). Compared to students' backgrounds (i.e., grade, socioeconomic status, social cohesion, recreation and health behaviour), school context (i.e., school conditions, social relationships, means for self-fulfilment and health status) was shown to have a major influence on students' sense of general wellbeing (Konu, Lintonen, & Rimpelä, 2002).

Wellbeing in the school context has been studied in Western context by Opdenakker and Van Damme (2000), Tobia, Greco, Steca, and Marzocchi (2018) and Van Petegem, Aelterman, Van Keer, and Rosseel (2008). Opdenakker and Van Damme (2000) used a wellbeing questionnaire consisting of eight indicators: wellbeing at school, social integration in the class, relationships with teachers, interest in learning tasks, motivation towards learning tasks, attitude to homework, attentiveness in the classroom and academic self-concept. The findings showed that the relative influence of schools on students' achievement was higher than the impact on their wellbeing. Tobia et al. (2018) conducted their study with 1038 students from 12 schools in northern part of Italy. The results showed lower scores on school wellbeing in secondary school students compared to primary school students. Among primary school students, wellbeing tended to be positively influenced by their learning skills. While among secondary school students, wellbeing tended to be positively influenced by high grades and negatively influenced by behavioural problems. Furthermore, Van Petegem et al. (2008) found that students' perception of their teachers' interpersonal behaviours predicted their wellbeing. When the students viewed their teachers as being tolerant yet exacting discipline, they also reported higher level of wellbeing.

In an Indonesian context, a number of studies have examined wellbeing in various settings, such as among working mothers (Noviani, 2018), divorced women (Pebriartati, 2011), family caregivers of adult with schizophrenia (Prasetyo, 2014), the elderly (Putri, 2018) and children and adolescents (Indrawati, 2013; Kurniastuti, 2013; Raihana, 2012). Kurniastuti (2013) developed a student wellbeing scale to measure Year 4 – 6 children's wellbeing in Indonesian primary school. The scale was developed based on the review of children's wellbeing research conducted by Fraillon (2004), Pollard and Lee (2003) and Ryff and Keyes (1995). So far,

however, a systematic understanding of students' sense of wellbeing in an Indonesian primary school context is still unknown.

2.7 Positioning the Study: Indonesian Context

The research context is a crucial aspect in this study. Thus, this section describes the research site of this study, Yogyakarta, Indonesia, focusing on the social and cultural contexts of the city. It will then identify the position of Yogyakarta in relation to Indonesia as a whole. The next part of this section discusses the Indonesian education system, including a brief overview of teacher training in Indonesia and the standard competencies of Indonesian teachers.

2.1.1 Yogyakarta: Diversity in Javanese Student City

Among 98 cities and 416 regencies in Indonesia, Yogyakarta city district (hereinafter called as Yogyakarta) is chosen as the location of the study. The area of Yogyakarta is 32.5 km^2, and is divided into 14 sub-districts *(kecamatan)*. Suggesting the population was 388,627 in 2010 with population density 12,854/km^2 (Indonesian Central Statistics Agency, 2017b). In regard to education, there are 90 public primary schools and 75 private primary schools in Yogyakarta with 100% school participation for children aged 7-12 years old (Indonesian Central Statistics Agency, 2017a) .

Yogyakarta is the capital of Yogyakarta Special Region. Yogyakarta Special Region is led by the king/sultan who appointed as a governor hereditary. Yogyakarta Special Region is divided into one city district, namely Yogyakarta and four regencies, including Bantul, Gunung Kidul, Kulon Progo and Sleman. Historically, Yogyakarta is a kingdom named the Mataram Kingdom (established around the 8^{th} century) which later changed into the Yogyakarta Sultanate in 1756. In 1945, Soekarno, the first president of the Republic of Indonesia proclaimed the independence of the Indonesian Republic. Sultan Hamengkubuwono IX, the king of the Yogyakarta Sultanate, expressed his support for the newly born nation of Indonesia, acknowledging the Yogyakarta Sultanate as a part of the Republic of Indonesia. Yogyakarta is the only region headed by a monarchy in Indonesia. Up until now, despite its cultural and religion diversity, Javanese culture, values and traditions are closely held in this region. According to Magnis-Suseno (1981), there are two principles of Javanese social life: the principle of conflict avoidance *(rukun)* and the respect principle. He noted that these two

principles are internalised during childhood and every Javanese person is mindful of society's expectation that their behaviour should conforms to these two principles in all conditions.

Figure 2. 2. Location of the study

2.1.2 Education in Indonesia

Indonesia Education System

Indonesia National Education System Law No. 20 of 2003 confirms that all Indonesian citizens have the right to a quality education. The function of the National Education System is to develop the capability, character and civilisation of the nation by enhancing its intellectual capacity. The Indonesia national education is aimed at developing learners' potential to become citizens, embedded with human values, who are faithful and pious to the one and only God; who possess morals and noble character; who are healthy, knowledgeable, competent, creative and independent; and as citizens, are democratic and responsible.

Indonesia National Education System Law No. 20 of 2003 also integrates various types of educational programmes under an integrated education system regulated by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) and the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA). Under this Act, formal education is defined as follows: (1) pre-primary education, (2) primary education; (3) junior secondary education; (4) senior secondary education; and (5) higher education (see Figure 2.3). Under this integrated system, all school types (general, religious, vocational and technical) should follow the national curriculum.

By 1984, the government of Indonesia had implemented the six years basic education for primary school age children (7-12 years old). Through the National Education Law No. 2 of 1989, the government of Indonesia expanded basic education to nine years (including primary and lower secondary level). This law states that every citizen aged 7 – 15 has the right to a basic education. Basic education was made both compulsory and free in 1994 through the Nine Year Basic Education Program (UNESCO, 2010).

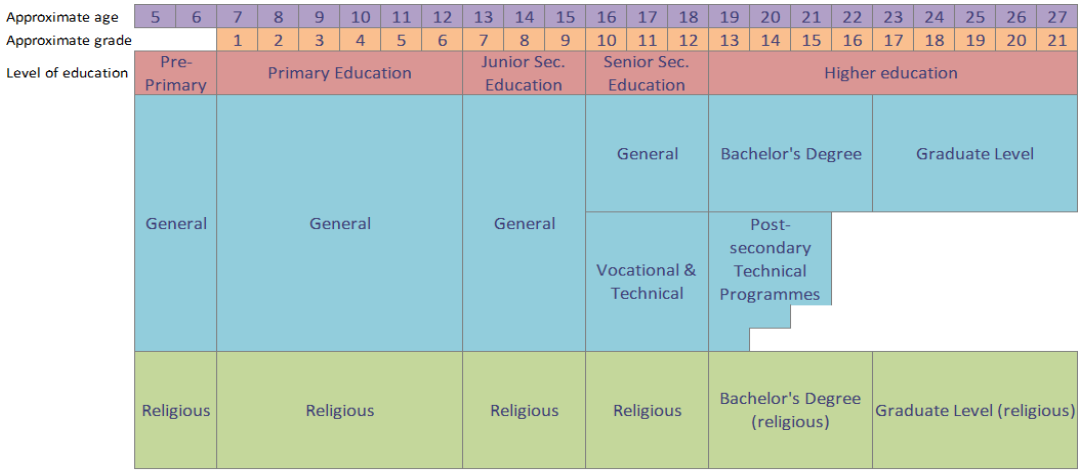

Figure 2. 3. Indonesian Education System

Equivalent to the general schools are Islamic schools or madrasahs. While general schools are managed by the Ministry of Education and Culture, madrasahs were governed by the Ministry of Religion Affairs. The Islamic schools teach Muslim students about religious principles (Moulton, 2008). Islamic kindergartens are called as Bustanul Athfal (BA) or Raudatul Athfal (RA), primary schools are known as Madrasah Ibtidaiyah (MI), while lower and upper secondary schools are called as Madrasah Tsanawiyah (MT) and Madrasah Aliyah (MA). Vocational and technical education in the Islamic school system is also provided, known as Madrasah Aliyah Kejuruan (MAK).

In 2017, under Ministry of Education and Culture, Republic of Indonesia, there were 88,381 general kindergartens; 147,503 general primary schools; 37,763 general junior secondary schools; and 26,380 general senior secondary schools. At the same time, there were 27,865 Bustanul Athfal (BA) or Raudatul Athfal (RA); 24, 765 Madrasah Ibtidaiyah (MI); 17,201

Madrasah Tsanawiyah (MT); and 8,038 Madrasah Aliyah (MA) under the Ministry of Religion Affair (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2017).

My study was conducted in public primary schools. However, within each of the five levels of schooling (pre-primary, primary, lower secondary, upper secondary and higher education), both public and private options are available. There exist two types of private school: private religious and private secular institution. Both public and private schools share many similarities due to centralised requirements including the national curriculum and examinations. However, some private schools refer to themselves as "national plus school" meaning they intended to go beyond the minimum government requirements, especially with the use of English as a medium of instruction or to have an international-based curriculum. The Indonesian school year for pre-primary to upper secondary level starts in the mid of July and finishes in the mid of July in the dates set by the Ministry of Education and Culture. The school week lasts for five days (Monday to Friday) in big cities or urban areas and six days (Monday to Saturday) in small cities or rural areas.

Since independence in 1945, Indonesia has made curriculum changes. Recently, the Indonesian government has introduced a new curriculum, known as "2013 Curriculum" to replace the previous curriculum called as "Education Unit Level Curriculum" (Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan/KTSP) which started in 2006. The 2013 Curriculum implementation encountered several obstacles, primarily related to teachers' unpreparedness to learn about new learning processes and assessment methods. Learning at primary school level is conducted through an integrated approach where learning is organised thematically by combining various subject such as Indonesian language, mathematics, natural science, social science, citizenship education and character education into one theme. This new curriculum emphasises authentic assessment, including self-assessment, portfolio assessment, process assessment and performance assessment. To increase teachers' abilities to implement this curriculum, the government provided continuous training for teachers. Initially, only some selected schools adopted these new approaches, however, by 2017/2018 academic year, through the Director General of Primary and Secondary Education decree No. 235/KEP/D/KR/2017, the 2013 Curriculum was officially mandated in all school.

Going to Primary School in Indonesia

Every day, 12,248,010 girls and 13,370,068 boys attend primary schools in Indonesia (Ministry of Education and Culture, 2017). These numbers also showed that the net enrolment ratio

(NER) has already achieved 99.14% (Indonesian Central Statistics Agency, 2017a). In Indonesia, especially in public schools, the students wear a national uniform. In primary schools students wear a white and red suit, black shoes, white socks, and white head covering - hijab - for female students who chose to wear it (see Figure 2.4). Usually, this uniform is worn on Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday. On Thursday and Friday students usually wear a uniform made from traditional fabrics such as batik. On Saturday, generally, the students wear a scout uniform known as *seragam pramuka.*

Public primary schools building in Indonesia are similar to each other. Usually, the public primary school located in the middle of the *kampung*[6]. The names of the schools themselves are the names of the *kampung*. Some of the schools are located in the main street, while some others are located in the urban slum area, in a small alley that only can be accessed by walking or by riding a bicycle or motorcycle. The building usually has a space in the front area that used for the flag ceremony, physical exercise and also as a playground. The school building consists of classrooms, toilets, administration and teachers' room, library and multipurpose hall built in L or U-shape (see Figure 2.5).

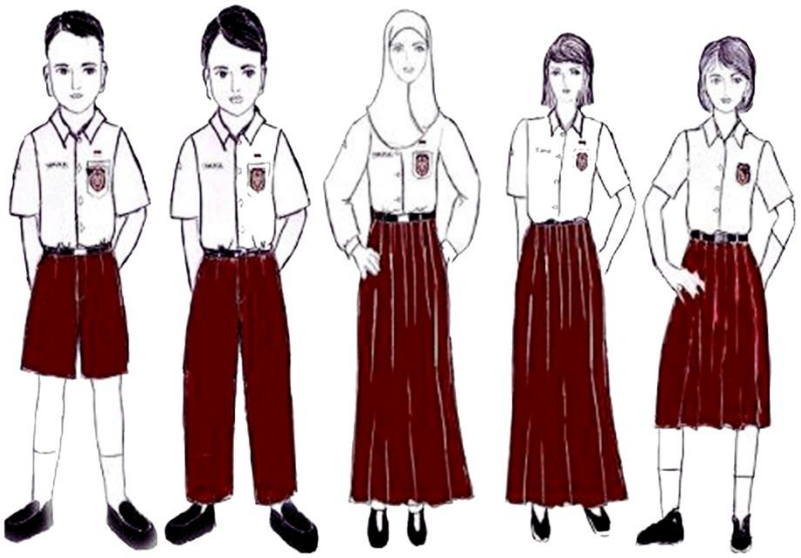

Figure 2. 4. Primary school student uniform

[6] *Kampung* refers to a settlement, the location could be in rural or urban area.

The majority of the classrooms are set up in conventional seating arrangements with four or five rows all facing the front. Some classrooms are set up in horseshoe or U-shape style, and others are set up in desk clusters arrangement. The teacher's desk is at the front, as are the blackboards or whiteboards. Some classrooms are equipped with a projector. Photos of the president and vice president of the Republic of Indonesia and Garuda Pancasila are displayed at the front of every classroom, as it is the national emblem of Indonesia. Charts, posters, Indonesia national hero pictures and students' works are hung on the walls – see Figures 2.6 and 2.7.

Figure 2. 5. School building

Figure 2. 6. Typical classroom setting

Generally, school starts at 7 a.m. and ends around 13 p.m. In the morning, some teachers stand up in the school gate to welcome the students. They do “salim” where students kiss the hand of the teacher as a symbol of respect. During breaks, the students usually play on the playground or eat snacks or lunch. They can bring a lunch box from home or buy it at the canteen.

Figure 2. 7. Students’ works on the wall

Teacher Education and Professional Development

Based on The Ministry of Education and Culture’s report in 2018, Indonesia has 1,301,097 public primary school teachers consisting of 68.37% female and 31.63% male. These teachers teach in 22,153, 241 students in 131,974 public primary schools across 34 provinces. Formerly, primary school teachers (Years 1-6) required a two-year diploma qualification (D-2 certificate) to teach at school. A Law Number 14 (2005) introduced a new policy on teacher training and accordingly, general requirements to become a teacher now include completing a four-year university degree, enabling them to apply for a teacher's certificate.

According to Poerbakawatja (1970), teacher education in Indonesia has a long history. During the Dutch colonial era, the government established teacher education schools called as *Normalschool* and *Kwsekschool.* Students of the *Normalschool* and *Kweekschool* were those who had completed five years of primary education. After four years, graduates from

Normalschool were able to teach at primary schools for local people (*pribumi)*, while graduates from *Kwsekschool* taught in the European and eastern foreigner primary schools. In 1942, the Dutch colonialism ended, and the Japanese started a new era in Indonesia. In this era, the Dutch education system was abolished and Dutch teachers had been banned from teaching. Thus, the *pribumi* teachers had to replace the Dutch teachers and were forced to teach at higher levels that they were capable of teaching. After achieving independence, the Old Order government (1945-1968) made efforts to meet the professional learning needs of teachers such as by developing *Sekolah Guru Bawah/SGB* (lower teacher school) for those who at least completed six years basic education. To supply teachers for junior and senior secondary schools, the government established teacher education at tertiary level, either in Faculties of Education in general universities or in *Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan/IKIP* (Institute for teacher training and education). To increase the capacity to educate more students, the New Order government (1968-1998) established teacher education schools at the secondary school level called as *Sekolah Pendidikan Guru/SPG* (teacher education school). The political change in 1998 brought significant changes in Indonesian teacher education. The government changed IKIP across the archipelago from Institutes of Education to Universities of Education in 1999. These universities began to offer various programmes besides teacher education which remain to this day. It is important to note that teachers who teach in Islamic schools graduate from Faculties of Tarbiyah (Islamic Education) attached to *Universitas Islam Negeri/UIN* (state Islamic university).

Pendidikan Guru Sekolah Dasar/PGSD (primary teacher education) is a four-year, full-time undergraduate primary teacher education programme. Students in this programme learn about theories about learning, practical studies and professional practice. Each university can develop its own curriculum. However, based on my review of some PGSD programmes, students take relatively similar courses such as Educational Science, Human Development, Teaching Methods, Classroom Management, Educational Research Methods, and subject-related papers such as Mathematics, Science, Language and Art in the first three years. In the final year, students take *Program Pengalaman Lapangan/PPL* (teaching practice programme) and write a final paper. Some universities offer extramural training to develop students' soft-skills such as character building training programme. Of interest to this study, no course specifically focuses on social-emotional aspect of education.

The teacher certification, the certification programme requires teachers to meet specific criteria including academic qualification, teaching experience, qualification-subject matching

and teaching workload (Trianto & Triwulan, 2007). To obtain teacher certification, teachers must pass proficiency exams administered by the government. The objective of teacher certification is not only to improve teachers' welfare, but also to improve teachers' competencies and professionalism (Jalal et al., 2012; Sanaky, 2005). The certification programme is centred on the new concept of teaching competencies stated in The Ministry of National Education of Republic of Indonesia Regulation No. 16 in 2007. According to this law, teachers should possess four areas of competence, namely personal, pedagogical, professional and social competencies as listed in Figure 2.8. As an integral part of the Teacher Certification Program, the government of Indonesia has implemented many professional development activities for teachers.

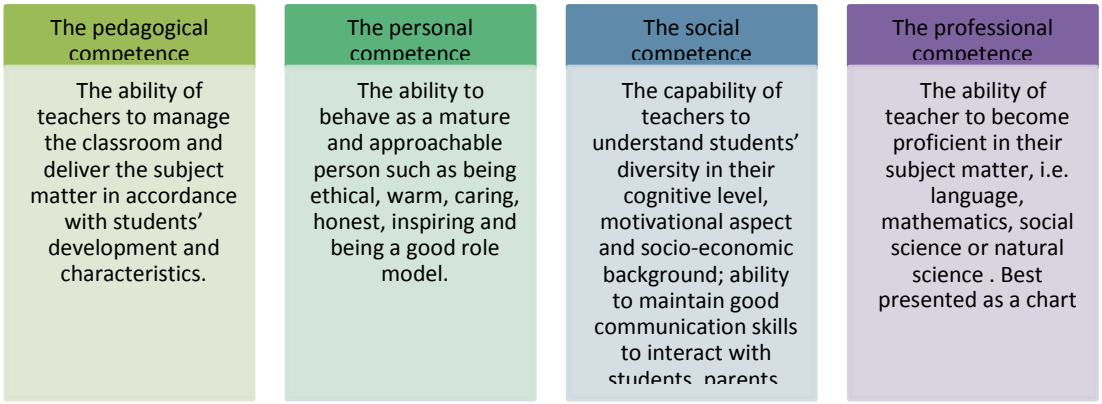

Figure 2.8. The standard competencies of the Indonesian teachers

Professional development in-service programmes have been implemented to fulfil the needs of Indonesian teachers to increase their knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Among professional development activities are seminars, workshops, training, mentoring, coaching, and teacher study groups (D. Evans, Tate, Navarro, & Nicolls, 2009; Sudarminta, 2000). For example, the government has established teacher development centres called as *Pusat Pengembangan dan Pemberdayaan Pendidik dan Tenaga Kependidikan/PPPPTK* (Centre of Development and Empowerment of Teachers and Education Personnel) based on a subject matter. The government also set up some teacher study group like *Kelompok Kerja Guru/KKG* (Teacher Working Group). Overall, the professional development programme offered by the Ministry of Education and Culture was in the area of professional and pedagogical competencies such as

learning about new curriculum policies or teaching approaches. Of relevance of this study, teachers' personal, social and emotional competencies improvement seems to get little attention of any.

2.8 Summary

This literature review has identified many social, cultural and historical factors that influence teachers' social-emotional practices in Indonesian primary classrooms. Moreover, empirical evidence reviewed demonstrates that inquiries on teachers' social-emotional practices have been sparse. Ultimately, little is known about specific social-emotional practices of Indonesian teachers. Gaps also exist in our understanding about how teachers' social-emotional practices relate to the all-important development of teacher-student relationships, students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing. More understanding is required of existing social-emotional practices in Indonesian primary classrooms. In order to study these issues, an appropriate methodology is required. The next chapter will discuss the methodology that underpins this study.

Chapter Three
Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The nature of this research is to explore and describe Indonesian teachers' social and emotional practices. A mixed-methods design was used comprising of three separate but related studies. The *first* study explored the Indonesia primary school teachers' and students' perspectives of teachers' social and emotional skills and how these are used in a classroom setting. The *second* study systematically organised the teachers' social-emotional practices in their Indonesia primary school classrooms. The *third* study profiled the teachers' individual social-emotional practices patterns and identified the relationships between teachers' social-emotional skills and their relationships with students, and students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing.

The methodology for these three studies is described in this chapter. The chapter begins with the research questions (Section 3.2), and then explains the research paradigm (Section 3.3). This is followed by an explanation of the rational for selecting a mixed methods design (Section 3.4). A general description of the methods used in the qualitative and quantitative studies and the research protocol for each study are then clarified (Section 3.5). Following, the ethical considerations are presented in Section 3.6.

3.2 Research Questions

This research seeks to understand Indonesian teachers' social and emotional practices in a classroom setting and the relationship this has with student-teacher relationships and students' feelings of connectedness and wellbeing. A review of the relevant literature has identified that teachers' social and emotional practices enable them to develop a positive classroom climate and inspire better student outcomes. As mentioned in Chapter One, research of this nature has predominantly been conducted in a western context. While identified some unpublished studies in an Asian context such as Singapore (Chia, 2014) and South Korea (Han, 2016), more research is necessary to investigate how teachers' social and emotional practices occur in an Indonesian primary school context. In order to understand the Indonesian teachers' social and emotional practices and their association with students'

wellbeing and school connectedness, it is essential first to explore teachers' expressions of social and emotional competences within an Indonesian context. Therefore, the first research question in the first qualitative study is: 'What kinds of social-emotional practices occur in Indonesian primary school classroom?'

Further investigation is needed to validate a systematic structure of the teachers' social-emotional practices. Therefore, the second and third studies profile the teachers' individual social-emotional skill patterns and examine the relationships between these patterns and the student-teacher relationship, students' feelings of connectedness and wellbeing. The following three research questions are addressed in the quantitative studies:

1. How are Indonesian teachers' social and emotional behaviours systematically structured?
2. What are the individual or idiosyncratic profiles of Indonesian teachers' social and emotional practices?
3. How do Indonesian teachers' social and emotional skills relate to their relationships with students as well as their students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing?

3.3 Research Paradigm

Filstead (1979) defines a paradigm as a "set of interrelated assumptions about the social world which provides a philosophical and conceptual framework for the organised study of that world" (p. 34). A paradigm indicates the researcher's philosophical assumptions about their research as well as their selection of tools, instruments, participants and methods (Denzin, 2003). Greene and Hall (2010) note that these assumptions are important for a social and cultural study such as this one, as a paradigm significantly define the nature of the research.

The paradigm underpinning this research is pragmatism. In this present study, pragmatism as a paradigm is more than just an explanation about future directions for research. Instead, pragmatism constructs new sets of beliefs that guide new types of action (Morgan, 2014). Pragmatism, according to Morgan, changes the study of social science to questions such as: How do researchers choose the way they conduct research? Why do they make the choices they do? What is the effect of making a series of choices instead of another? He argues that knowledge is not about an abstract connection between the knower and the known; on the contrary, there is an active inquiry process that produces a constant back-and-forth

movement between beliefs and actions. The present study emanates from the diverse experiences I have had as an Indonesian educational psychologist. As an educational psychologist working with varied teachers and students, I witnessed social and emotional problems, such as bullying and anxiety resulting from negative classroom climate, experienced by the students. My worldview has always been to find solutions to these problems partly stemming from teachers' lack of social and emotional competence. Historically, too little attention has been paid to these competencies that lie at the heart of their practice. It is this worldview that informs my study.

Furthermore, as noted by Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007), pragmatism provides the ideas that help researchers to answer complex questions of practice. Thus, pragmatism will support the mixed methods approach because it offers a philosophy that is applied and practical (Onwuegbuxie & Leech, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). In this study, the first research question focuses on teachers' and students' perspectives and experiences of teachers' social-emotional practices in an Indonesian classroom setting and indicating qualitative methods. However, there is also a quantitative component to the research, in particular, the mapping and profiling of teachers' social-emotional practices and the correlations with teacher-student relationships and students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing. Therefore, pragmatism supports the use of mixed methods combining qualitative and quantitative methods to answer my complex research questions.

In his review of a pragmatic approach, Morgan (2007) identified three major differences of pragmatism compared to a quantitative or qualitative approach. First, a pragmatic approach, draws conclusions using an *abductive* processes, the back and forth movement between induction and deduction. Second, pragmatism focuses on i*nter-subjective* techniques, and third, it offers *transferability*. The abductive-intersubjective-transferable aspects of pragmatic approach provide a practical position for researchers, such as myself, who use mixed methods designs. Pragmatism creates an opportunity to combine the inductive-subjective-contextual aspects of qualitative research with the deductive-objective-generalizing aspects of quantitative research to gain a comprehensive understanding of teachers' social-emotional practices.

Research paradigms can be characterised by their ontological, epistemological and methodological beliefs (Scotland, 2012). Ontology refers to the study of being (Crotty, 1998). Pragmatic researchers argue that knowledge development can be accomplished by a joint action between people or group. They believe there is single reality and that all individuals

have their own unique perception of reality (Mertens, 2010). Hence, pragmatist researchers answer their questions by providing multiple perspectives which distinguishes it from other paradigms such as post-positivism or constructivism. The present study starts by exploring qualitatively, the participating teachers' and students' perspectives and experiences of teachers' social-emotional practices in an Indonesian classroom setting. Then, to better understand the teachers' social-emotional practices, two further quantitative studies map and profile these practices.

A pragmatist's epistemological point of view, or nature of knowledge is based on the claim that the relationships and theories used in research are determined by what the researcher considers as applicable to their particular study (Biesta, 2010; Creswell, 2009). Pragmatist researchers follow Dewey's version of epistemology that research occurs in communities and accordingly, the researcher should work together within established communities to better understand and solve the complexities of a problem of practice (Hall, 2013). The implication of this epistemology for my study is that new understandings will be known to the classroom community and myself, as the researcher, through our collaborative research processes.

3.4 Mixed Methods

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) define mixed methods research as the class of research that combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study. A mixed methods design was selected to bring together the strengths of both qualitative and quantitative research and to minimise the weaknesses inherent in each (Creswell & Clark, 2011; Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989; Pluye & Hong, 2014).

Karasz and Singelis (2009) highlight three problems pertinent for research in cultural psychology: the problem of culture, the problem of transferability and the problem of measurement. The first problem relates to the view that in conventional cultural psychology research design, culture is usually conceptualised as a category to establish comparisons between groups. However, the contents, processes and structures that constitute culture are not specified. As a result, the findings from such designs do not give adequate information about psychological differences between cultures. Powell, Mihalas, Onwuegbuzie, Suldo, and Daley (2008) suggest that a mixed methods approaches enable researchers to capture a contextualised account of the phenomena under investigation. The second problem pointed

out by Karasz and Singelis (2009) is that most psychological theories have been developed by white, western, middle-class psychologist, which might not be applicable in another cultural context – in this case an aspect of Indonesian culture. Thus, combining qualitative methods with quantitative methods enables the researcher to understand how meaning is shaped in a variety of cultural context. This view is supported by Bartholomew and Brown (2012) who point out that mixed methods research provide more opportunity to acknowledge the contextual factors so as not to force western norms.

Finally, Karasz and Singelis (2009) refer to the need to develop research instruments with high validity across cultures. Mixed methods research can solve this problem by including qualitative approaches construct a questionnaire or scale that is significant to participants in the field. When the research instrument has been developed, the quantitative inquiry can be used to increase the equivalence of the instruments and to discover problematic areas with inadequate equivalency. In terms of the present study, the qualitative phase explores the specific ways in which Indonesian teachers and students perceived social-emotional practices in their classroom settings. Quantitative research instruments were then developed based on the insights gained from the qualitative phase to organise and to profile the Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices as well as to investigate the correlation between their social-emotional practice and the student-teacher relationships, students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing.

In an attempt to identify the types of mixed methods research, many authors have developed typologies of mixed methods research design (e.g., Creswell & Clark, 2011; Creswell, Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2009; Teddlie & Tasshakori, 2006). Typologies can help researchers to understand how different methods can be combined. A three-dimensional typology of mixed methods designs developed by Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009) was used in this study. Their designs can be represented as a function of the following three dimensions: (1) level of mixing (partially mixed versus fully mixed); (2) time orientation (concurrent versus sequential); and (3) emphasis of approaches (equal status versus dominant status). This classification system results in six mixed methods designs: (1) partially mixed concurrent equal status design, (2) partially mixed concurrent dominant status design, (3) partially mixed sequential equal status design, (4) partially mixed sequential dominant status design, (5) fully mixed concurrent equal status design, and (6) fully mixed concurrent dominant status design. The design of my study involves conducting three separate phases that occur sequentially (qualitative-quantitative-quantitative) with the qualitative and

quantitative phases having equal weight. Besides, the qualitative and quantitative data sets in this study are analysed separately with mixing of the findings takes place at the data interpretation stage. Thus, the present study is classified as partially mixed sequential equal status design.

3.4.1 Making Inferences from Mixed Methods Research

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) suggest the use of the term "inference quality" for describing what quantitative researchers refer to as external validity or generalization, and what qualitative researchers refer to as transferability. Furthermore, they define inferences in mixed methods design as: "a researcher's construction of the relationships among people, events and variables as well as his or her construction of respondents' perceptions, behaviour and feelings and how these relate to each other in coherent and systematic manner" (p. 692). However, before discussing how to make inferences from mixed methods research, it is necessary to first explain the timing, weighting and mixing procedures used in the mixed methods analysis.

First, timing refers to the sequence of the data analysis, which can occur either concurrently or sequentially (Creswell & Clark, 2011), Morgan (1998) refers to this as the sequence decision. In my study, data from the qualitative phase of the study were analysed to develop instruments that were then used in the quantitative phase. Second, weighting is defined as the emphasis given to the two forms of data within a study (Creswell & Clark, 2011), or for Morgan (1998), the priority decision. According to Morgan (1998), the first step in the research design process is to choose the major data gathering method that has the potential to reach the project's goal, and the second step is to decide a contrasting complementary method which has the power to can contribute to the overall ability of the research to achieve its objectives. Accordingly, Creswell and Clark (2011) argue, "The weighting is thus influenced by the goals, the research question(s), and the use of procedures from research traditions such as quantitative experimental designs or qualitative case study designs" (p. 82). In my study, the data was weighted equally as each method is grounded in its distinct goals, research questions and procedures. Finally, mixing can be loosely described as a process to mix the data derived from both qualitative and quantitative phases. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), without explicitly mixing the data from each phase, a mixed methods study is simply a collection of multiple methods. Besides connecting the data at the analysis stage (i.e., between the qualitative and quantitative phase), my study also associates the data at the interpretation

stage through the separate and overall discussions. When mixing the data at the analysis stage, I developed items related to teachers' social-emotional practices to elicit information corresponding to the qualitative codes and themes. When mixing the data at the interpretation stage, I addressed each code/theme/variable by discussing both the qualitative and quantitative data and how data from both sets compared and contrasted.

The findings from the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study were integrated using the procedure used by Moran-Ellis and colleagues (2008; 2006) that they refer to as "following a thread". First, each dataset was analysed using the analytic method appropriate to that data (see Chapter Four, Six and Seven). Second, possible findings within a dataset were picked up as a thread to be followed through into the other datasets. Third, a data repertoire was created according to the threads that held together each dataset. Finally, the findings generated in the previous steps were synthesised with other threads that were similarly picked up and followed (see Chapter Eight).

Developing inferences in mixed methods research is an essential component, as these not only answer the research questions but they also construct a roadmap to develop new insights into events, processes and relationships (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, 2008; Venkatesh, Brown, & Bala, 2013). It is important to be concerned about the quality of inferences made in a mixed methods research, or as Venkatesh et al. (2013) describe - the accuracy of deductively and inductively derived conclusions in a study. Inference quality consists of two dimensions: (1) design quality, or the standards used for the evaluation of the methodological rigour of the research and (2) interpretive rigour, or the accurate and authentic conclusions (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003, 2009). In my study, these validations are based on the concept of inference quality and its dimensions (i.e. design quality and interpretive rigour) proposed by Teddlie and Tashakkori. In the section that follows, I present the research protocol that describes the aims of each method and the methods for collecting the qualitative and quantitative data to strengthen the inferences made.

3.5 Introduction to the Three Studies

To answer the four research questions stated above, three independent but complementary studies were conducted.

3.5.1 Study 1

A qualitative study design was applied to identify: (a) Indonesian primary school teachers' and students' perspectives of socially and emotionally competent teachers and (b) nominated Indonesian primary school teachers' social and emotional skills and how these are used in a classroom setting. Twelve primary classroom teachers participated in this study. The teachers were those who won had and/or participated in the "Distinguished Teachers Competition" (*Lomba Guru Berprestasi*) in Yogyakarta in the district level. Classroom observation, focus group discussion and photo-elicitation interview were used as data collection methods in the first phase of the qualitative study, while individual semi-structured interview and focus group discussion were used in the second phase of the qualitative study.

Classroom observations (CO): Classroom observation is possibly the oldest method in psychology (Banister, 1994) and is regarded as highly objective way to evaluate children's behaviours in school (E. S. Shapiro & Heick, 2004). Burns (2000) argues that the purpose of observation is to create a dynamic picture to explain patterns, to review complex and subtle interactions and to seek relations. Classroom observation is recognised as a tool that allows the researcher to understand how teachers teach within the real classroom context (Putnam & Borko, 2000). Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006) classified observations into four types based on the degree of participation and observation: complete participant, participant-as-observer, observer-as-participant and complete observer. The complete participant approach is more common in action research where a researcher who is a member of a community undertakes the data collection. The participant-as-observer is an approach in which the observer interacts extensively with others, such as joining in the classroom activities and taking notes. The observer-as-participant is when the researcher has some interaction, such as taking notes at the back of a classroom, while the complete observer approach is when the researcher has little or no interaction with the people in the setting, such as conducting observations through a one-way mirror. For the purpose of this study, I positioned myself as the observer-as-participant because as a researcher, I did not only observe my research participants, but also engaged in the classroom activities.

Focus group discussion (FGD): Focus group discussion is a research method used to talk with a group of people, usually 6-10 to focus discussion on subjects that underpin the research questions. A facilitator, usually the researcher, encourages interaction between the participants through asking questions, encouraging participant-participant discussion and

probing for further details (Steward & Shamdasani, 2015). This method is beneficial to explore people's knowledge and experiences and also to investigate not only what people think, but why they think the way they do (Kitzinger, 1995). According to Krueger and Casey (2014), another advantage of focus group discussions is the socially oriented environment that helps the participants to feel safe to share ideas (Vaughn, Schumm, & Sinagub, 1996).

A free-listing strategy was chosen for the teacher FGD as this is regarded as a simple yet powerful strategy to stimulate discussion (Bernard, 2006; Colucci, 2007). This strategy requires the facilitator to invite individual participants to record all the features of a particular field, and then share them with the group (Krueger, 1998). This free-listing inquiry helped me to understand how the teachers made sense of their experiences (see Appendix A1). An activity-oriented approach (Krueger, 1998) was also used in the student FGD. This approach was chosen to allow additional time for them to think, and to ensure they were comfortable giving their responses (Colucci, 2007) (see Appendix A2).

Photo-elicitation interview (PEI): The use of photos as stimuli in interviews has been applied in a variety of disciplines including psychology (Aschermann, Dannenberg, & Schulz, 1998; Croghan, Griffin, Hunter, & Phoenix, 2008), education (S. James et al., 2005; Smith, Gidlow, & Steel, 2012), sociology (Harper, 1986), anthropology (Caldarola, 1985) and health (Bender, Harbour, Thorp, & Morris, 2001; Buchanan, 1998). As this form of inquiry has developed, a number of different terms have been used, such as photo interview (Cappello, 2005; Higgins & Highley, 1986), photo-elicitation interview (Loeffler, 2004; Padgett, Smith, Derejko, Henwood, & Tiderington, 2013), photo novella (S. James et al., 2005; Wang & Burris, 1994) and reflexive photography (Harrington & Lindy, 1999; Schulze, 2007). Before conducting a photo-based interview, Clark-Ibáñez (2004) suggests that the researcher choose who will take the photographs. Some researchers ask their participants to take the photos to be used later as interview stimuli (Castleden & Garvin, 2008; Wang, 1999), while others choose to take the photos and present them to the participants as part of the interview (Epstein, Stevens, McKeever, & Baruchel, 2006; Harper, 1997). I took the photos in this research. I use the term *photo-elicitation interview (PEI)* to describe the process by which the photographs were subsequently discussed during individual interviews with the teachers (Clark-Ibáñez, 2004; Harper, 2002). The purpose of a photo-elicitation interview is to gain a detailed understanding of teachers' behaviours and feelings related to their interaction with students.

Carlsson (2001) points out that photography is a supportive tool to understand the ways people experience the world. She argues that photographs can function as a communication bridge between the interviewer and the respondent to enhance a positive atmosphere and reduce any power imbalance. Furthermore, Carlsson (2001) states that: "feelings can be easier and more fully expressed and understood in relation to photos compared with what might be revealed through descriptions made without such a visual support" (p. 131). In sum, PEI was is an appropriate method to explore teachers' experiences and feelings regarding their social and emotional practices in the classroom setting.

Interviews with teachers (TI): Interview is one of the most common methods of data collection in qualitative research (Doody & Noonan, 2013; F. Ryan, Coughlan, & Cronin, 2009) as it enables the researcher to enter into the participants' perspectives and experiences, and make sense of their world (Hatch, 2002; Patton, 2014). Of the three types of interview: structured, semi-structured and unstructured (Fontana & Frey, 2000), this study employed semi structured interviews because these allowed the researcher to control the direction of the interviews and to have more opportunities to obtain wide-ranging follow-up responses (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). An interview guide (see Appendix A3) was developed to collect similar types of data from all participants and to create a sense of order (David & Sutton, 2004). A semi-structured interview usually begins with key questions that help to define the areas to be explored, followed by prompts and probes to pursue and idea or response in more detail (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). This semi-structured interview was chosen to gain more understanding on teachers' views and experiences regarding their social-emotional practices.

Thematic analysis was used to analyse data in this qualitative study. Thematic analysis is a systematic method enabling relevant themes to emerge (Daly, Kellehear, & Gliksman, 1997). The strength of a thematic analysis is that data can be investigated and new theories generated as a part of the analysis process (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Crawford, Brown, & Majomi, 2008). Thematic analysis provides rich, detailed and complex understanding, where similarities and dissimilarities between participants' view can be established (Alhojailan, 2012; Joffe & Yardley, 2004). Six-phases of thematic analysis proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006) were used to reveal the teachers' and students' perspectives and experiences of teachers' social-emotional practices. The details of this thematic analysis process are presented in Chapter 4.

3.5.2 Study 2

Study 2 investigated the structure of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional behaviours as perceived by non-educators. Two lists of statements describing teachers' social-emotional practices (referred to as items), one from the teachers' perspectives (TSEP-T) and one from the students' perspectives (TSEP-S), were drawn from FGD, PEI and TI. Items were short statements that described teachers' social-emotional behaviour such as:

- "Teacher is in tune with students' feeling"
- "Teacher prays in an emotional situation (e.g., frustrated, angry, disappointed)"
- "Teacher does not discriminate his/her students"
- "Teacher comforts sad students"
- "Teacher changes students' seating arrangement to enable students' relationships"
- "Teacher encourages students to pray"

Each item was printed onto a small thin coloured card. Seventy-two university students who were studying to be teachers in Yogyakarta, Indonesia took part in Study 2. The participants were asked to sort items by perceived 'similarity' or 'belong-togetherness' using a four-step sorting task called GOPA-sorting (Bimler & Kirkland, 2003). GOPA is an acronym representing the four steps involved in data collection: Grouping, Opposite, Partition and Adding. The participants' responses were analysed to explore the underlying structure of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional behaviours. The details of this approach are described in Chapter 6.

3.5.3 Study 3

Having organised the teachers' social-emotional practices into a stable and coherent map, from Study 2, the goals of Study 3 were to establish the core social-emotional practices in teaching; to profile and compare teachers' idiographic social-emotional practices patterns; and to investigate how these profiles related to student-teacher relationships, and students' feelings of connectedness and wellbeing. Participants consisted of 90 teachers and 333 students from 19 primary schools in Yogyakarta City District, Indonesia. The Q-Sorting method called Methods of Successive Sort (MOSS) (Kirkland, Bimler, Drawneek, McKim, & Schölmerich, 2004) was used in this study. The similar items used in Study 2 were used again in Study 3. The teachers also completed the Student-Teacher Relationship Scale-Short Form (STRS – SF) and the students completed the Student Connectedness Questionnaire and

Student Wellbeing Scale. Correlation analysis was performed to investigate the link between teachers' social-emotional practices and student-teacher relationship, students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing. The details of this method are presented in Chapter 7.

3.6 Ethical Consideration

Conducting research in a school setting is intrusive and can potentially cause harm. Thus, as a researcher, I need to recognise that my relationship with teachers and students has an ethical aspect. Haverkamp (2005) notes that ethics "can represent a thoughtful, and sometimes courageous, commitment to creating trustworthy human relationship within out research enterprise" (p. 146). Acquainted with Haverkamp's denotation of ethics, this section describes the principles and procedures needed to establish a trustworthy relationship with participants.

3.6.1 Ethical approval and clearance

Study 1 was categorised as a full-risk study (HEC: Southern B Application 15/18), while Study 2 and Study 3 met the requirements of low-risk studies (Ethics Notification Number: 400016882 and 400016883), as determined by the Massey University 'Screening Questionnaire'. All research procedures have been conducted in accordance with the guidelines of Massey University's Code of Ethical Conduct for Research, Teaching and Evaluations involving Human Participants. The section below describes the ethical approval and clearance procedures to conduct Study 1.

The human ethics application was prepared as a requirement of the Massey University Human Ethics Committee (MUHEC) to conduct Study 1. This procedure was to assure that the study was prepared sufficiently and that the participants' rights were protected. My thesis proposal, including focus group discussion guides, photo-elicitation interview guides, information sheets and informed consent forms for teachers, parents and students was submitted to MUHEC.

I attended a MUHEC meeting accompanied by one of my academic supervisors. I was asked to clarify aspects of the ethical issues that were unclear in the application. For example, I was questioned about the length of time for participation by students in the focus group discussions. I responded that these focus group discussions were interactive and involved games and therefore would not be too long for the students. As a researcher, I understand that

I should be sensitive to the needs of young students and make sure that the procedures are child-friendly. Furthermore, the committee was concerned about my safety when interviewing teacher participants in a private location would give rise to issues of safety for me that needed to be considered. I responded that it would be preferable to interview teachers in the school setting, after hours. If a teacher asked to be interviewed outside the school setting, it was suggested that a colleague be contacted before and after the interview, however, it was preferable to conduct it in a public setting. My human research ethics application was successful with minor amendments on the original ethics application form. The amendments were based on the issues raised and discussed in the meeting as mentioned above.

After approval was granted (see Appendix B), I sought to accomplish the Indonesian government requirements to commence the study. Prior to collecting the data, there were clearance procedures in Yogyakarta, Indonesia that needed to be fulfilled. Because I was in New Zealand, I appointed one research assistant, who held a B.Psych to execute the clearance procedures. I sent her the PDF documents needed for the clearance procedures, namely application letter, research proposal, information sheet and consent form which had been translated into Indonesian language. I also held a video call meeting with the research assistant to explain my study. After receiving the consent from the Governor Cq. Head of Development Administrative Bureau of Yogyakarta Special Region, I submitted the clearance application to the Clearance Agency and Education Agency. There was no ethical review requirement from all these agencies, but I was requested to submit a proposal, explaining the research aims and designs, including the names of primary schools invited to participate. With all the required documentation from local government and human ethics approval from Massey University, I was able to begin the data collection phase as outlined later in Chapter Four.

3.6.2 Privacy, anonymity and confidentiality

In order to hear the teachers' and the students' life stories, privacy, anonymity and confidentiality requirements were vital. Privacy relates to the control over the extent, timing and circumstances of sharing oneself, either physically, behaviourally or intellectually, with others. Anonymity involves separating an individual or institution identity from the information they provide by using pseudonyms, to ensure people or places cannot be identified. Confidentiality is a guarantee given to participants that the information they give is only known to the researcher and is not open to the public. The issue here was to protect the

participants' identities and to ensure the data collected from the participants was not inappropriately disclosed. Thus, the researcher gave attention to both the data collection and data management procedures, as discussed below.

Since the research involved face-to-face focus groups and interview sessions, the participants were not anonymous to the researcher nor to each other. However, all the participants were asked to keep confidential identifying information and details of the discussions within the group. Moreover, participants' identifying information were not to be disclosed to anyone else other than the researcher and the academic supervisors. For instance, during the classroom observations, I took photos using my tablet, but did not share these with other teachers. The teachers only saw the photos of themselves in their photo-elicitation interviews. Pseudonyms were always used throughout the study. No names of participants and institutions appear in the thesis.

While in Indonesia, the data files were stored in a secure location in a locked cabinet, and could only be accessed by me in my office at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada. The data were transported back to New Zealand by me and kept securely in my hand luggage. Upon arrival at Massey University, the data that contained identifying information such as consent forms were stored in a securely locked cabinet at the School of Psychology, separate from the transcripts and could only be accessed by the researcher and academic supervisors. The electronic data such as copies of a voice recording, soft copies of the interview data and the photos taken during classroom observations were saved on my computer and were password protected. All identifying information in the transcriptions were removed.

3.6.3 Informed consent

The notion of informed consent is essential in social science research because it concerns an individual right or freedom to choose to participate (Miriam David, Edwards, & Alldred, 2001). Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1996) point out four principles to ensure that those who give their consent are fully informed, i.e., full information, comprehension, competence, and voluntarism. The researcher is responsible to provide full information to potential participants about the research objectives, duration, processes, roles, commitments and the ethical procedures designed to minimise risk. It is also important for potential participants to comprehend this information. Thus, the Information Sheet should be written in a language appropriate to the age of the reader. The potential participants should also have opportunities

to explore and discuss the details of this information. Subsequently, it is important to consider the competence of potential participants to decide about taking their participation research.

To recruit my participants and to enable voluntary informed consent, a letter was sent to the Principals of each of the 27 schools formally inviting them to participate. The Information Sheet (see Appendix C1) was enclosed in the invitation letter (see Appendix C2). A suitable time was arranged for a meeting with each school principal to clarify the research aims, data collection procedures and other concerns. The school Consent Form requiring a signature from the principal if the school principal gave consent for their staff and students to participate (see Appendix C3).

A face-to-face meeting was then held with each of the potential teachers to explain the research objectives and processes and to give them the information sheet (see Appendix C4) in order to ensure that they clearly understood the research requirements. Once they agreed to participate in the study, a written consent form was completed (see Appendix C5).

I used educative approach to help my potential student participants to understand the information about the proposed school-based study (Miriam David et al., 2001). Once informed consent of the teachers was obtained, I visited each participating class to introduce myself and to explain the study to the students. Given the age of the students (10 – 12 years), they were provided with full information through specially designed leaflets to help their understanding (see Appendix C6). I gave the students an opportunity to ask questions and I clarified aspects of the research for them. I then distributed the Consent Forms and gave sufficient time for them to confidentially complete their tick-box style format (see Appendix C7). David et al. (2001) pointed out that these consent procedures to ensure students were fully informed "invoked some of the social meaning that [they] wished to explore" (p. 348). Furthermore, they argued that providing information through questions and answers on the leaflets and in the whole-class discussions produces students' active response to the received information. In this manner, the researcher ended up being 'educated', rather than just being 'informed'.

Parents' consent was required due to the age of the students. To obtain parents' consent, I asked the teachers to distribute the Parents/Caregiver information sheet to students to take home (see Appendix C8). Parents or caregiver were welcome to contact me by email or phone to discuss the research. Signed consent forms in a sealed envelope were returned to the teacher within a week (see Appendix C9).

3.7 Summary

This chapter provided an overview of and justification for the selection and design of the research methodology as well as exploring paradigmatic bases for mixed methods research. Considering the absence of formal knowledge on the area of teachers' social-emotional practice, especially in an Indonesian context, the nature of this research is exploratory and guided by four main goals. The first goal of this research is to develop a comprehensive understanding of themes associated with Indonesian primary teachers' social-emotional practices in their classroom settings. The second goal of this research is to validate the findings generated from the qualitative study by developing a stable organization of social-emotional behaviours. The third goal of this research is to identify profiles of teachers' social-emotional practices The final goal of this study is to investigate how these profiles relate to teacher and students relationships and also students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing. Chapter Four to Seven will describe the three separate but interrelated studies as summaries in Figure 3.1.

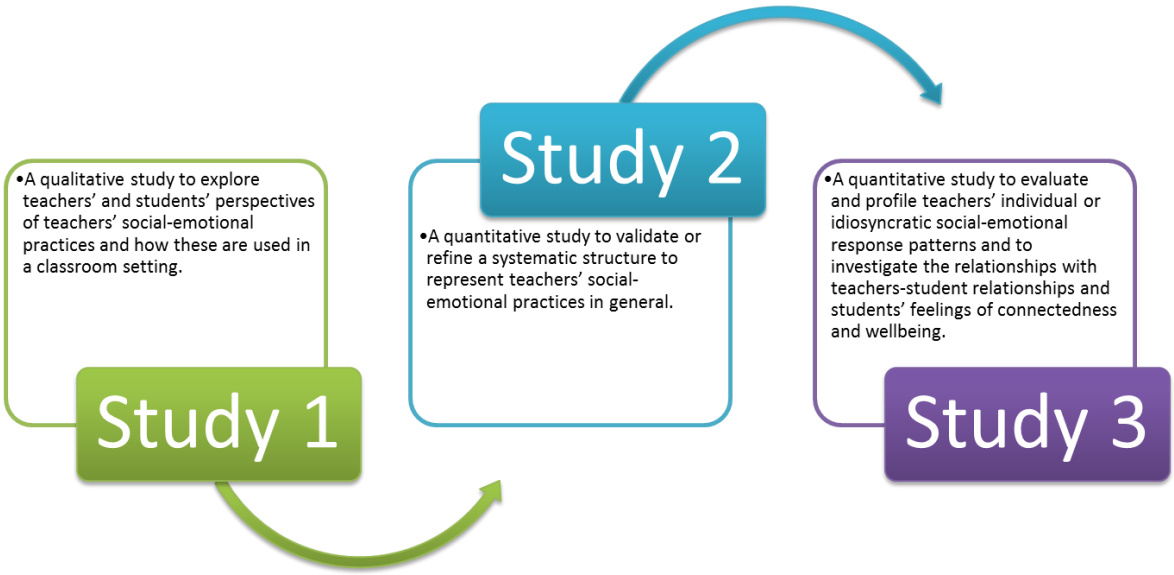

Figure 3. 1. Overview of three research studies to develop an empirical framework of teachers' social-emotional skills

Chapter Four
Qualitative Research Methods

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided an overview of and justification for the selection of the mixed methods methodology used in this study. The study started with a qualitative phase to explore Indonesian primary school teachers' and students' experiences of teachers' social and emotional practices. In this chapter, the qualitative research methods are reported including the participant selection procedures and the specific use of data collection analysis methods. Given the complexity of qualitative research and its subjective nature, a separate research methods chapter is provided. The quantitative research methods applicable to Study 2 and Study 3 are described in Chapters 6 and 7.

4.2 Overview

Taking a qualitative approach raises a range of methodological issues that were discussed in Chapter 3. This section describes the qualitative research methods that were developed and used to address these issues. These methods are used to address the first research question: What kinds of social-emotional practices occur in Indonesian primary school classrooms?

4.2.1 The Participants

Morse (1991) points out four types of sampling used in qualitative research: purposive sampling, the nominated sampling, the voluntary sampling and the sampling a whole population. According to Patton (2014), purposive sampling is used widely in qualitative research for the identification and selection of information-rich cases for the most effective use of limited resources. It is for this reason that I chose purposive sampling. Purposive sampling also means that researchers can intentionally identify and select individuals who are especially knowledgeable about or experienced with the central phenomenon under investigation (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Furthermore, Morse (2007) notes: "It is necessary to locate excellent participants to obtain excellent data." (p. 231). As is apparent, the aim of Study 1 was to understand and illustrate nominated Indonesian primary school teachers' social and

emotional skills. Thus, I needed to choose primary school teachers with outstanding social-emotional skills.

The Education Agency of Yogyakarta City District gave me 27 names of primary school teachers who had won and/or participated in the "Distinguished Teachers Competition" *(Lomba Guru Berprestasi)* in Yogyakarta the district level. Every year, the Ministry of Culture and Education Republic Indonesia holds a competition for teachers called "Distinguished Teachers Competition". The selection starts from district level, province level, and the winner at the province level will compete in a national competition. The criterion to assess whether this teacher can participate in this competition refers to Law of The Ministry of National Education Regulation No. 16 in 2007, which states that teachers should possess four areas of competence: professional, personal (including emotional aspect), social and pedagogical competencies.

The potential number of participants within a purposive category was more than could be studied with the available resources and time. Thus, I applied a purposive random sampling technique. I ran a simple random sampling with a Random Number Generator program via a website named stattrek.com. From the 27 names entered, 20 teachers' names from 18 primary schools were chosen to invite as participants.

The school principals were then contacted to seek permission to formally invite the teachers to participate in my study. From these 18 schools, 16 schools (14 public and two private schools) agreed to participate. Seventeen teachers from 15 schools indicated their willingness to participate. Two teachers from the private schools indicated that their Year 1 students were not eligible to participate, so these teachers were eliminated. Accordingly, 15 teachers were suitable to participate and gave their consent. Later, one teacher annulled his participation because of a health condition. After the focus group discussion, two more teachers from one school withdrew their participation, leaving 12 teachers from 11 primary schools. Table 4.1 shows specific details of each of teacher participants.

The Year 4 to 6 students (aged 10 – 12 years of age) who were invited to participate in this study were the students of the participating teachers. Most of the students and parents gave their consent for their child to be invited to participate in classroom observations (CO). Forty-two students did not agree to participate in the focus group discussion (FGD) and four parents did not give consent for their child to participate in these either. Only the students who gave their consent for both the CO and the FGD and whose parents also gave consent were chosen

to participate. At the time of a CO, if a student did not consent, data were not collected about them. Where there were too many students willing to participate in the FGD, I asked the teacher to recommend eight to ten students from the list who were competent and confident communicators. Then, I randomly chose six students from this list. There were 228 student participants across the twelve classrooms in which I did my observations and 54 students. The following section describes the qualitative data collection methods for Study 1.

Table 4. 1.

Details of teacher participants

School code	Teacher pseudonym	Gender	Age at Nov 2015	Years of teaching	Number of students in class	Year
A	Anita	F	43	19	23	6
B	Budi	M	44	24	24	6
C	Cahyono	M	44	15	30	4
D	Denia	F	33	11	29	4
E	Elisa	F	45	25	26	4
F	Fardi	M	38	14	19	6
G	Ginni	F	53	33	24	6
H	Hasna	F	33	9	22	6
H	Hadiyah	F	30	10	22	5
I	Inas	F	47	22	26	6
J	Jami	F	29	5	15	4
K	Kina	F	46	22	14	3

4.2.2 Data Collection

The first qualitative data collection in Study 1 was carried out over four months between November 2015 and February 2016. The second qualitative data collection was conducted from August to September 2016 to gain further examples of teachers' social-emotional practices. Figure 4.1 presents the time line summarising these data collection periods. Qualitative data were generated using five methods: i) classroom observation, ii) focus group discussions (with both teachers and students), iii) photo-elicitation interviews, iv) individual interviews and v) my researcher diary.

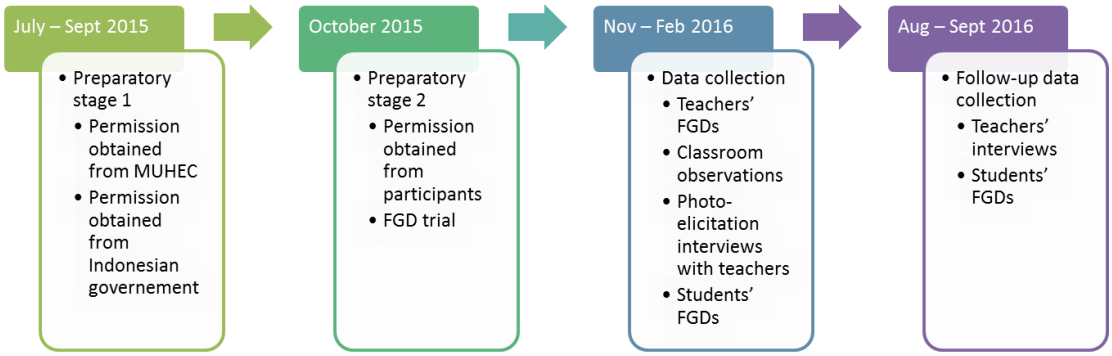

Figure 4. 1. A Summary time line of the data collection period

Trial data collection

In order to test the adequacy of the guiding questions for the FGD, I trialled them with seven teachers from one Indonesian primary school who were not involved in this study. The second trial was with seven Indonesian primary school students who lived near the research assistant's house and who were not involved in this study. The trial questions were asked in exactly the same way as they were asked in the actual study. I recorded the time taken to complete the discussion, observed the participants' responses, and assessed whether each question gave an adequate range of responses. At the end of the discussion, I asked the participants to give me feedback about whether my questions were understandable or ambiguous. From this feedback and my observations, I made some revisions and re-worded the question guide.

The trial with students identified the difficulty in encouraging them to talk openly when they were not familiar with me. Interestingly, one student commented that this kind of discussion was like gossiping about his teacher. Even though I believed that my questions were neutral, I could not deny this student's feelings. This student's response gave me a new cultural awareness about the teacher and student relationship. Talking about their teacher, as an older, authoritative figure was not always acceptable, which led me to be careful in the way discussion statements were worded. I designed questions that encouraged the students to share the positive aspects of their teachers, such as "What do you like most about your

teacher?" and "What makes your teacher good at being a teacher?" Another strategy I made was to discuss the rules of the focus group with the students before starting our discussion. I asked them to suggest important ways of interacting, to endorse positive values such as confidentiality, respect and care. I also decided to conduct the classroom observations prior to conducting students' FGD to familiarise myself with the student participants.

Classroom observations (CO)

I made two 2-4 hour observations for each of the 12 classrooms. I managed the observation time so that over the observations, I could experience a whole day in one classroom. For example, if I conducted the first observation in the morning, I ran the second observation in the afternoon in order to capture a full day within the classroom. During the classroom observation, I sat at the back of the classroom in a detached position. Writing my observation in a spiral bound notebook, I noted how the students and the teacher interacted with each other. Sometimes I wrote their conversation in detail, but sometimes I only wrote key-words to prompt a later full description when my field notes were written up. I sketched diagrams of the classroom and noted how the teacher and students interacted. I also wrote about my feelings and reflections of my observations in my research diary. There were many occasions when the students asked about my note-taking. I told them I was noting down what I saw happening in their classroom. If they tried to sneak a look at my notebook, I slowly closed it. In the evening after the classroom observation, I typed up full observation notes based on my field-notes.

Focus group discussions (FGD)

In the present study, FGDs were held with the teachers and the students separately. The section below describes how I engaged in the FGD method which was described in the previous Methodology chapter.

Teacher FGD

The teachers' FGDs were conducted after school in School H, because this school was one of the most accessible schools for all the teacher participants. In accordance with the local customs, the discussion was started with prayer. Next, I re-introduced myself and reminded them of my research aims. The participants then introduced themselves and the atmosphere became more relaxed. I started the discussion by asking the teachers to think about one

teacher who in the past had connected well with them, a teacher who made them enjoy learning. Following this, I asked them to describe the characteristics of this teacher. The teachers wrote their responses on the paper and took turns to explain these to the group. Our discussion concluded with the question, "What do you think are the most important attributes to have as a teacher to establish a positive classroom climate?" After the discussion, lunch was provided and each participant received a transportation fee and a T-shirt as a souvenir.

Student FGD

The next data collection procedure involved the students' FGDs using an activity-oriented approach (Colucci, 2007; Krueger, 1998). I planned to conduct the FGD with six to seven students of similar age who each went to different schools. However, since it was difficult to arrange the schedule, for this, the focus group consisted of students from the same school. In School J and K, there were less than four students who consented to participate in the FGD, so I only administered nine students' FGDs in School A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H and I.

As with the teachers, the FGD started with a prayer in accordance with the local customs. After I re-introduced myself, I asked them to introduce themselves. In some groups, I broke the formality by asking the students to introduce his/herself to a partner, then the partner would introduce him/her to the group. In other groups, I asked them to introduce themselves and associate themselves with an object they related to, or to make a funny body movement when introducing their names. All these activities were designed to break the ice and to get to know each other. Before starting the discussion, I reminded them about the objectives of the discussion and reassured them that a pseudonym would be used so that no one would know what they had said. I also mentioned that whatever was shared within the focus group would not be conveyed to their teachers or to their parents, nor that their comments would affect their marks. The students were reminded that they had the right to decline to answer any particular questions. The students were reminded to keep information of the discussions within the focus group confidential. Finally, I asked them to decide on a few rules for the discussion, such as raising their hand before talking and taking turns to talk. These processes served to show respect and care for each participant.

Figure 4. 2. Students participating in a focus group discussion

Once the students relaxed, I showed them the board game and explained the rules of the game to be used in the discussion. Seven rules were followed in this board game:

a. Each child got one token.
b. The child rolled the dice and moved forward that number of spaces.
c. If he/she landed on a square with a star symbol, he/she received a small present (candy or biscuit).
d. If he/she landed on a square with circle, triangle, rectangle or diamond symbol, he/she took one card with the same picture and read the question on the card or asked the researcher or other participants to read it aloud.
e. The participants chose whether they wanted to answer the question, to prompt other students to answer, and for the researcher to ask follow-up questions when appropriate.
f. If the token landed on the card whose symbol has been taken by other participants, the dice was re-thrown.
g. The game ended when all participants reached the "finish" square

Photo-elicitation interviews (PEI)

During the classroom observation sessions, I took some photos using my tablet to illustrate teacher-students interactions and other incidents related to social-emotional practices. I did not print out these photos, rather I chose to show them on the tablet screen. The teachers only viewed the photos taken of them. I conducted the PEI with teachers from January to

February 2016. The duration of each PEI ranged from 40 - 90 minutes. The PEI was held at the school and at a time convenient to each teacher. Sometimes, it was not easy to set the time and to find a convenient room for an interview because of the teachers' busy schedule and the schools' lack of space. I returned the verbatim transcription of their PEI for verification and comment before conducting follow-up interview with the teachers.

Figure 4. 3. Example of a photo taken to elicit Anita's thinking about her classroom interaction

Figure 4. 4. Example of a photo taken to elicit Elisa's thinking about her classroom interaction

Research diary

The research diary used in this study was simply an A5 lined book. Each time I visited schools for data gathering, a new entry was made. This was done as soon as practically possible after each visit. Each new entry began on the next new page, starting with the date and brief demographic details about the school and the activity conducted at that school. Reflections on the classroom obersvation, focus group discussion or interview experience were then documented. Usually this included notes on what I felt throughout the observation, focus group discussion or interview; what the possible themes were, along with ideas about the implications these may have.

Follow-up data collection

The findings from this qualitative phase were to be used for constructing the questionnaires in the quantitative phase. However, the qualitative phase was limited in terms of the teachers' actual behaviours reflecting their social-emotional practices. Data from the teachers' FGD, the PEI and the students' FGD indicated that there were some attributes of teachers' social-emotional skills, such as kindness, caring, fun and fairness. However, how these were expressed by the teachers had not been made explicit. For the purpose of data adequacy, I conducted a follow-up data collection in August to September of the same year - 2016.

All the teachers were re-contacted and sent a second information sheet (see Appendix C10) asking them to participate in one follow-up interview. Nine of the original 12 teachers agreed to this second interview and written consent form was completed (see Appendix C11). After arriving back in Indonesia, I met the teachers and conducted the individual interview with them at a mutually convenient time.

These follow-up interviews with each teacher lasted approximately 40 minutes. They were held at school, during the school day when the teachers were not teaching, such as during religious studies or music practice. The interview started with my expression of gratitude for their time and willingness to participate. I then explained the summary of key findings from the previous teacher FGD and PEI, and then highlighted the gaps that I was interested in findings out (see Appendix A3). After the interview, I gave the teacher a New Zealand key-chain as a sign of my appreciation.

Regarding follow-up data collection with the students, I conducted three further FGDs. Six out of the nine student groups who had participated in the first data collection, had by now

graduated to intermediate school, thus I could only hold three FGDs with the students who remained at Primary School C, D and E.

As previously mentioned, the aim of the follow-up data collection was to further explore, and illustrate the teachers' and students' perspectives of teachers' social and emotional competence. Accordingly, the follow-up students' FGD probed their experiences of their teachers' social and emotional practices. I began the FGD by stating my appreciation to join me again in a discussion. I clarified that I still needed their help to better understand their social and emotional learning experiences. I also reminded them that whatever was shared within the FGD would not be communicated to their teachers, parents or other students. In these second FGD, the students received a list of teachers' dispositions written on cards, i.e., caring, kind, patient, fair, friendly and fun. The students and I sat in a circle with the cards in the middle. I asked one student to take and read a card. Then, I asked the students for examples of how teachers exhibited that social-emotional attribute. All the students could consecutively give examples and shared their experiences.

4.2.3 Qualitative Data Analysis

As a qualitative researcher, I bring with me a certain worldview as an Indonesian educational psychologist, holding the values, perspectives, behaviours, beliefs and knowledge of my indigenous community. Being an an "indigenous-insider researcher" (Banks, 1998, p. 8) provided me with access to the participants' stories that other researchers may not have had, offering me a level of insight into the Indonesian teachers' and students' experiences and perspectives. However, these values and biases mean that my qualitative data collection and anaylis can not be neutral (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). Given this potential bias, I followed the following six step of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) with regular discussions with my academic supervisors to the participants' voices and their persepectives and experiences were capture. In addition, an independent translator translated the key excert from the data set and clarified my interpertation.

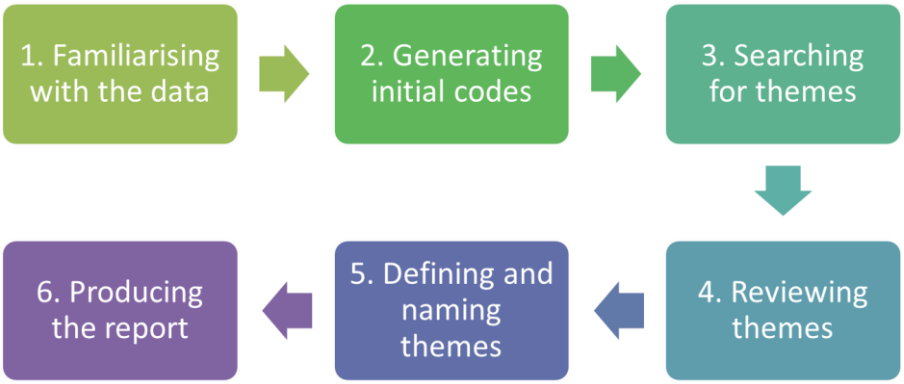

Figure 4. 5. A six-phase approach to thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006)

Phase 1: Becoming familiar with the data

The analysis process began by transcribing the data. All the data from the FGD, PEI and follow-up interviews with teachers and FGD with students were transcribed into Indonesian. While I found this to be a time-consuming process, I was reminded of Lapadat and Lindsay's (1999) comments that transcription is a process that *"facilitates the close attention and the interpretive thinking that is needed to make sense of the data"* (p. 82). I then started to read and re-read the transcripts in Indonesian. I also listened to the audio recordings to become even more familiar with the data. Initially, I felt lost and I struggled to see patterns Then, I followed Braun and Clarke (2012) suggestion to read the data actively, analytically and critically by making notes as I read or listened. I highlighted important or interesting ideas and wrote comments on the right-hand side of the transcripts. This note-making process helped me to think about what the data were saying. Once I had become more familiar with the data, and developed preliminary insights and thought-provoking ideas, I moved to the second phase of the thematic analysis.

Phase 2: Generating initial codes

According to Saldaña (2015), in qualitative research, a code is "a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data" (p. 3). First, the data were coded manually guided by the research questions. In order to facilitate discussions with my supervisors, I created codes

in English even though the data remained in Indonesian, and then I translated some examples of coded data, so that I could have meaningful discussions with them.

During this manual coding process, it became apparent that support was needed to manage the volume of data and its complexity gained through the iterative coding process. I found *NVivo* (QSR International, 2014) to be a user-friendly software package that provided tools designed to aid my data management and analysis. A project was created in *NVivo*, and I imported the interview transcripts, FGD transcripts, CO notes and research diary entries into it. The *NVivo* coding began by selecting segments of text and creating an appropriate code, called as 'node'. All transcripts were coded in a similar fashion. I then re-coded to merge similar nodes into more comprehensive nodes or to separate a node into more detailed nodes. This process enabled me to determine whether a code could be applied to an excerpt or whether a new code was needed.

Phase 3: Searching for themes

In this phase, I collated codes into potential themes. To help me to review the codes and to identify similarity and overlap between codes, I wrote the name of each code on a separate cards and played manually with them making piles relating to one theme. In this phase, I was guided by the research questions to make sure that the emerging themes related to them. Some of my initial codes merged into global themes, some other codes formed organising themes, and others became sub-themes, and some codes were discarded.

During this search for broader themes, I also started to explore the relationship between themes. Besides working manually with code cards, I also used *NVivo* to search themes. Each of the global themes (main nodes) was allocated a place at the top of a node 'tree' that organised all of the nodes. Under these main nodes, I entered the organising themes (child nodes). Next, I added the sub-themes to the organising nodes (grandchild nodes). To explore the data extracts relevant to each theme, I used a coding summary that could be saved and printed from *NVivo*. This coding summary reported the data excerpts coded at each node. In addition, I also explored the data using an *NVivo* tool called Project Map to present the data visually (see Figure 4.6).

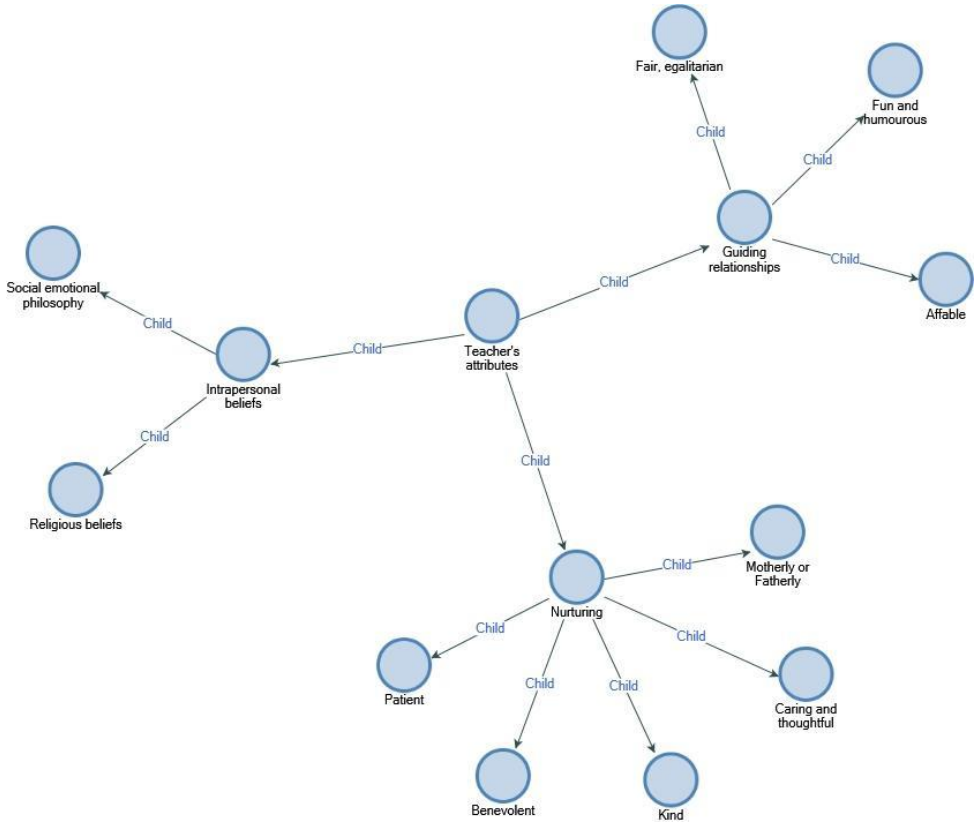

Figure 4. 6 An example of my final 'Project Map' in *NVivo*

Phase 4: Reviewing themes

This phase began by reviewing the coded data excerpts. I read the data excerpts for each theme and examined whether these excerpts fitted the theme or not. After discussing these with my supervisors, minor changes were made and finally a coherent pattern of themes emerged. The entire data set was re-read to determine whether the themes worked in relation to each other. Some themes appeared to be too diverse and others were not well supported by meaningful data, so I decided to create a few new themes. For example, there was a global theme named 'teachers' responses' in the previous phase. Within this global theme, four organising themes were identified: teaching strategies, relationships with students, classroom management and students' development. However, the boundaries of this theme were not clear, and there were not enough data to support it. So, this theme was re-considered and a new 'home' for the data excerpts called teachers' values, nurture, emotion regulation, growth promotion and power sharing. Figure 4.7 shows a thematic map resulted in this phase.

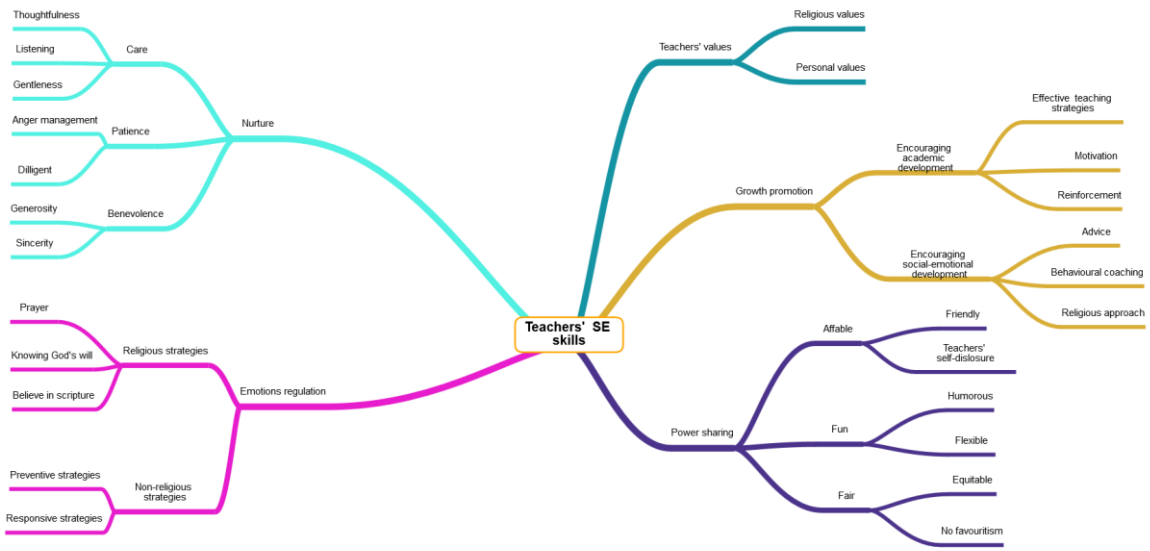

Figure 4. 7 Thematic map, showing five global themes

Phase 5: Defining and naming themes

I further analyse the data by defining and naming the themes and writing up my findings. *NVivo* was still used during this phase. Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest identifying the 'story' of each theme and reflecting on how it fits in with the global story. In this way, I was moving beyond just the reporting of words, to finding the hidden message in the data (Braun & Clarke, 2012). For example, there was a global theme named 'power sharing' in the previous analysis phase. Within this global theme, three organising themes were identified: affable, fun and fair. However, the name 'power sharing' itself did not describe the scope and content of the organising themes properly. This global theme also appeared too complex and too diverse. So, it was clear that further refinement was needed. I went back to the data and organised them into more articulate and consistent explanation with accompanying data excerpts.

Phase 6: Producing the report

Braun and Clarke (2006) argue that the thematic analysis report should not only describe the data, but become an argument in response to the research questions. This phase involved back and forth movements between the data extracts and the conceptual overview of the findings. A coherent and logical story has been created based firmly on the themes emanating from the data. I also tried to present sufficient and vivid evidence of the themes. The findings obtained

from this six-phase thematic analysis are explained, illustrated and discussed in the next chapter.

4.3 Summary

This chapter has described how the qualitative methods, theorised in the previous chapter, were used in the qualitative phase of the research (Study 1) to generate and analyse data. Beginning with a description of the participants, the focus then shifted to the various methods used to generate data. The data collection methods used in this study were summarised, including interviews, focus group discussion and classroom observations. Finally, the six-phase thematic analysis method used to analyse data were described. The results obtained from this analytical procedure are described in the Chapter Five.

Chapter Five

Study 1: Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional practices

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings from the qualitative phase of the research. To be reported are the perspectives held by Indonesian primary school teachers and their students about the nature of teachers' social and emotional competence and how these perspectives are demonstrated in their Indonesian classrooms. As mentioned in the previous chapter, these data were generated in two phases. The first phase included focus group discussions with the teachers (TFGD) and with the students (SFGD), as well as classroom observations (CO) and photo-elicitation interviews (PEI) with the teachers. The second data collection phase included follow-up teacher interviews (TI) and follow-up focus group discussion with the students (FSFGD). Table 5.1 defines the abbreviations used to identify the data sources.

Table 5. 1.

Description of data sources

Method	Code	Description
Teachers' focus group discussion	Nov 2015, TFGD2, Ginni	Focus discussion time, focus discussion number, teacher pseudonym
Classroom observation	Nov 2015, CO1, Hasna	Observation time, observation number, teacher pseudonym
Students' focus group discussion	Nov 2015, SFGD6	Focus discussion time, focus discussion number
Photo-elicitation interview	Jan 2016, PEI, Inas	Interview time, photo-elicitation interview, teacher pseudonym
Teachers' follow-up interview	Aug 2016, TI, Budi	Interview time, follow-up interview, teacher pseudonym
Follow-up student focus group discussion	Aug 2016, FSFGD1	Follow-up focus discussion time, follow-up focus discussion number
Research diary	Feb 2016, RD	Entry date, research diary

Firstly, the key qualitative findings in the study are described (Section 5.2). These findings are then discussed in term of their contribution to the current literature about teachers' social and emotional practices (Section 5.3). Lastly, the summary of the study is presented (Section 5.4).

5.2 Findings

Four global themes were identified from the thematic analysis procedures: living a relational philosophy, nurturing, developing classroom harmony and regulating emotions (see Table 5.2).

Table 5. 2.

Key findings: Teachers' social-emotional practices

Global Themes	Organising Themes	Subthemes
Living a relational philosophy	Religious values	-
	Social-emotional attitudes	-
Nurturing	Care	Thoughtfulness
		Gentleness
	Patience	Anger management
		Persistence
Developing classroom harmony	Guiding relationships	*Rukun*[7]
		Respect
		Fairness
	Positive interpersonal approach	Friendliness
		Humour
Regulating emotions	Religious strategies	Prayer
		Knowing God's will
	General strategies	Preventive action
		Responsive strategy

5.2.1 Living a relational philosophy

Living a relational philosophy pertains to the teachers' efforts to live their intrapersonal beliefs regarding their relationship with God as well as with other people in their professional roles as primary school teachers. This global theme includes two organising themes: teachers' religious values and teachers' social-emotional attitudes. Religious values comprise a wide range of

[7] *Rukun* is the principle of conflict avoidance. *Rukun* is apparent by cooperation, agreement, mutual acceptance, calm and unity. For Javanese, *rukun* is the ideal condition in all relationships. (Geertz, 1961; Magnis-Suseno, 2001)

religious teaching, with faith shaping the teachers' views about their teaching, while social-emotional attitudes relate to the teachers' understandings of their professional roles as primary school teachers, and perceptions of students. Detailed accounts of these two organising themes are explained in the following section.

Religious values

Typically, every Indonesian school has a vision and a mission statement to define its objectives and the approaches to reach these objectives. The primary schools that participated in this study had a vision and mission statements that were displayed on a board for easy reading. Interestingly, the vision statements in these primary schools used words relating to religious values such as 'piety', 'faith' or '*akhlak*[8] For example, one school expressed their vision statement in the following way: *"To develop piety, smart, skilful and virtuous people".* The other 10 schools had similar visions that showed coherence between their students' religious, academic and social-emotional development.

The school vision did not distinguish religious or non-religious aspects. This vision was supported by the teachers' personal values that primary education should support academic as well as non-academic development such as positive habits and character. One teacher, Cahyono, pointed out the importance of having a balance between supporting corporeal and spiritual aspects.

> *[There should be] a balance between physical and spiritual [areas]. Some students are smart but by contrast their behaviours…you know what I mean. That's because they need more guidance in religious aspects of life. (Feb 2016, PEI, Cahyono)*

All 12 teachers, regardless their religion, mentioned that religious values were the most important values to teach. Two of the 12 teachers mentioned*: "For primary education, religious values are the most important ones." (Feb 2016, PEI, Anita)* and *"The first character that I teach is akhlak" (Feb 2016, PEI, Ginni).* The focus on religious values was evident in the classroom routine. All 12 teachers started the morning routine with prayer and they also ended the school day with prayer. Eight of the 11 schools conducted a morning ceremony in the school yard and prayed together. While in other schools, the teachers and the students prayed

[8] *Akhlak* come from the word *akhlaq,* an Arabic term that usually translated in English as ethics or morals. *Akhlak* refers to the practice of virtue, morality and manners in Islamic theology. However, the word '*akhlak'* is understood and used between Indonesian non-Muslim people too to explain a pious morality.

together in the classroom. Sometimes they also prayed for a special intention such as to be successful in an exam or for healing for a sick student as illustrated in the following excerpt:

> *Hasna: Does anybody know why does Hani is still absent today?*
> *Students: She is sick*
> *Hasna: Yes, Hani's mom told me that she got a sore throat. Let's pray so she gets well soon and will be back learning together with us. (Nov 2015, CO1, Hasna)*

Besides inviting the students to pray together, the teachers reported that they prayed for and with their students especially on special occasions such as exams and competitions. The teachers also supported students who were sick, who had learning difficulties, or who had emotional-behavioural problems by saying personal prayers. These prayerful acts showed that the teachers intentionally built a spiritual connection with their students and modelled a religious values and actions. Although the students did not mention their prayerful teachers, the students remarked that they felt encouraged when their teachers prayed for them.

While the teachers prioritised religious values, they also saw their role as their God given duty. The excerpt below illustrates this view:

> *My task is not merely doing my job description. I really realise that this is my responsibility to God towards the children He has entrusted to me. (Nov 2015, TFGDI, Inas)*

Muslim people, refer to this responsibility as *amanah* that comes from Arabic meaning fulfillment or upholding trust. The word *amanah* is a broad concept that covers daily activities as well as a persons' position or relationship with God. *Amanah* occurs when people fulfil what has been entrusted to them by God, and is done solely for God. One Muslim teacher talked about *amanah* in the following way:

> *Everything should return to our faith because these children are from God. They are amanah that we have in our hand. Our duty is to take care of them. (Aug 2016, TI, Hadiyah)*

While the Muslim teachers saw their job as a divine mandate from God, the Christian teachers believed that being a teacher was also their calling. They also believed that this work would be accomplished with God's help. As one Christian teacher said:

> *God led me to this job. God calls me to be His tool to educate these children. If I am like what I am now, that's just because of God's mercy. Without that, I would never be like this. (Feb 2016, PEI, Ginni)*

Another Islamic teaching that is believed by the Muslim teachers was related to 'work as a form of worship'. The Muslim teachers believed that instead of simply ritualistic acts, worship was everything one says or does for the pleasure of God including teaching. These Islamic teachers believed that their sincerity and integrity as teachers came from their belief that teaching was a form of worship. Sincerity was mentioned by seven of the 12 teachers. The following excerpt exemplifies that faith:

> *First and foremost, working is worshiping. … If our intention is worshiping, the mundane things in life will follow. We will be sincere. Sincere means that God judges and God replies. Don't think about salary first, think about worship first. (Aug 2016, TI, Kina)*

In addition, the Muslim teachers also mentioned *pahala* which refers to spiritual merit or the rewards that accrue having performed good deeds. If work is worship, they believed that they would receive *pahala* for their work. One teacher mentioned that "*Working is worshiping. So, when you do something good, you do something that brings rewards." (Aug 2016, TI, Fardi)*

Another comment highlights this belief in a slightly different way:

> *I always remember about the luck of being a teacher as mentioned in the Quran. The luck of being a teacher is that if you are in hell, one of your student's hands will pull you to heaven, 'she is my teacher, her knowledge is within me'. His/her reward flows. (Aug 2016, TI, Hadiyah)*

As discussed above, religious values appeared to be essential across the 12 teachers and these formed part of their relational philosophy. Furthermore, this value coloured the teaching and learning process in the schools. The data showed that promoting religious values was an important goal that influenced the teachers' pedagogy. The following excerpt illustrates how a teacher integrated religious values into her science teaching, *"We put religiosity a lot [in teaching]. For example in science, we learnt about the human body. We told the students that we should thank God for that." (Nov 2015, TFGD3, Cahyono)*

Moreover, the teachers also encouraged students to perform religious rituals such as *salat*[9], praying and going to church. One student mentioned, *"She always reminds us to salat, worshiping God because we really need God. We will face national exam soon. Our hearts need to be peaceful, without burden." (Feb 2016, SFGD1)*

[9] *Salat* is the obligatory Muslim prayers that performed four times each day.

Social-emotional attitudes

Teachers' social-emotional attitudes related to three separate areas: attitudes towards teaching roles, attitudes about primary education and their perceptions of students. Regarding the attitudes about their roles, they held paternal attitudes believing that being a primary school teacher meant being a parent to the students. The following excerpt typifies this paternal attitude.

> *Students will be happy if the teacher shows him/herself as a parent plus. What I mean here, is a parent who guides, loves and gives knowledge. This is what the students want. In the classroom, the students would be very happy if the teacher is showing fatherly or motherly attitudes. (Aug 2016, TI, Budi)*

In the same way, the students also mentioned that parental attitude were an important feature of being a teacher and that this attitude helped them to learn better. Bebi, a Year 6 student said, *"Our teacher is kind because he is just like our own parent, our second parent." (Feb 2016, SFGD 2)*

The parent-children relationships was also observed when the teachers used terms of endearment such as honey or sweetheart, believing that by using a family name like *nak* (son/daughter), *mas* (brother), *mbak* (sister), *sayang* (dear) was a way to build close relationships.

The teachers believed that primary education is the foundation for the next level of education and also for the students' future lives as adults. The teachers considered that developing a good character was essential. One teacher commented, that "*Primary school is a foundation. All good values [that I teach] will be their own, part of their life. … So I teach good habits to them since the beginning." (Jan 2016, PEI, Inas)*

The last social-emotional value is related to the teachers' perceptions of their students. The teachers indicated their belief that every stage of development has its own typical features. Hadiyah, a Year 5 teacher said that she understands that usually, the students did not misbehave intentionally, but that "naughtiness" was sometimes a trait of their age. Likewise, Budi, a Year 6 teacher believed that the students were children who need guidance as they had not yet matured. The following excerpt illustrates this view:

> *These kids behave like that just because they don't understand yet. They don't know the rule, manner, etc. They don't have enough social experiences. So I don't assume that they*

break the rules intentionally. It's just because they don't know yet. (Budi, Nov 2015, TFGD1)

Summary

Together these findings provide important insights into the teachers' philosophies regarding religious, emotional and social aspects of their teaching roles. The teachers indicated that religious values were interwoven with their personal values. The teachers positioned their profession as a duty to God that they should be accountable for. Furthermore, their parental attitudes were an important part of social-emotional practices in a classroom setting. As 'parents', the teachers believed that they should be wise in their response to students' misbehaviour as they were still immature children. The teachers also believed that they were responsible for supporting their students' religious, academic and social-emotional development.

5.2.2 Nurturing

The previous section has shown how Indonesian teachers' relational beliefs help to shape their professional attitudes. The following section will discuss various forms of nurturing practices that they used in their classrooms. The broad theme of nurturing was the most commonly expressed perception of social and emotional practices in the Indonesian primary classroom context. To be a nurturing teacher was to be: caring and patient. To foster a nurturing learning environment was considered by both teachers and students as the more important and essential form of social and emotional practice.

Caring

The teachers spoke of their strong duty of care for their students' personal wellbeing and for their academic learning. This duty of care was expressed by one teacher as: *"For me, the first approach is love and caring" (Feb 2016, PEI, Kina).* More than half of the teachers believed that to care deeply for their students was a way of showing love and that modelling this expression of care was important.

To be caring was also mentioned by the students as an important attribute that they looked for in their teachers. In all nine FGDs with students, in terms care or caring were terms stated 54 times. To quote one student when asked about the kind of teacher who makes them come to school happily and vigorously, he answered, *"A teacher who cares." (Nov 2015, SFGD 6)*

A caring learning atmosphere could be felt in a classroom. An excerpt from my research diary illustrates the actions of the teacher to create this caring environment:

> *I can feel the warm feeling of this classroom. The teacher shows her attention to the students. Her eye contact, her body language, the diction she uses show that she cares about the students. (Jan 2016, RD)*

Two broad attributes of a caring teacher were identified by both the teachers and the students, namely: thoughtfulness and gentleness.

Thoughtfulness

According to both teachers and students, being thoughtful was a way to show that they cared. Firstly, thoughtfulness was expressed by the teachers through giving attention to issues that they knew mattered to their students. The following extract shows how a teacher was thoughtful by valuing her students' birthday:

> *We need to give a little attention. Like in birthdays, we sing together. That makes children happy. … A child came to me and said, 'Today is my birthday, and yesterday was Eya's birthday.' So, they both stood in front of the classroom, we sang together and I asked other children to say happy birthday and mention their wish. That kind of attention makes them comfortable in school. (Feb 2016, PEI, Elisa)*

This kind of attention from the teacher was also raised by the students as an important nurturing attribute. More than half of the students reported that an attentive teacher knows what happens in the classroom and gives thoughtful responses to students and to their situations. The following excerpt provides one example of a thoughtful reaction to problems in the classroom:

> *Mrs. Anita always monitors the students from near or far. She always knows about her students. For example, when there were students fighting or talking noisily, she knew and gave advice so they would not do that again. (Feb 2016, SFGD 1)*

The students also stated that socially and emotionally competent teachers are responsive to their personal circumstances within and beyond the school. They added that they liked a tactful teacher who understands their personal situations, feelings and expectations. The students reported that they felt cared for when their teacher gave attention to and carefully considered their non-academic issues. To be greeted in the morning at the school gate, or visited by the teacher when they were sick or when a family member passed away were some

examples of the teachers' attention to students. The excerpt bellow shows students building meaning together about a thoughtful teacher:

> *Irma: When there was a sick student, the teacher stroked her shoulder and asked her to go to the school health unit.*
> *Ifa: She visited her at home or hospital*
> *Yayi: How did you feel when your teacher did this?*
> *All: Happy*
> *Yayi: Why?*
> *Ine: It showed her attention. She cared for her students. (Feb 2016, SFGD9)*

Secondly, in order to be thoughtful, all of the teachers explained that they needed to know their students and to understand their home backgrounds. For example, Cahyono, a Year 5 teacher, recognized that his students mostly came from low socioeconomic families. He attempted to find out about their backgrounds by visiting their homes. Another example comes from Elisa who knew that more than half of her students came from dysfunctional families. It was important for these teachers to also consider their students' lives outside of school. Anita, a Year 6 teacher, described the violent nature of the community her students were living in:

> *In our school, there are various kinds of society. Some of them are positive but some of them are negative. Some of the students live in discourteous neighbourhoods, surrounded by alcoholic people. They see it. So, we need to explain to the students about bad and good behaviours. (Nov 2015, TFGD3, Anita)*

To be thoughtful required the teachers to carefully observe their students day-by-day in order to recognise subtle changes in their behaviours. The teachers also encouraged their students to talk with them about life events or issues that might be affecting their learning. Interestingly, instead of waiting passively, these teachers initiated these conversations so that the students would openly share their feelings and daily experiences with them. The teachers asked the students about their personal and family lives, not only to seek information but also to open up an opportunity for the students to talk and to be heard. Sometimes the students' stories were amusing and innocently shared, but it was important to show respect for these seemingly "unimportant" things. The teachers agreed that a willingness to listen showed their care for students as the following extract shows:

> *What do children actually need? To be listened to. To be listened to about their stories. Because may be, at home, their parents don't listen to them. Their parents are busy. So, they need to be listened to. They need respect. When we listen to them, they feel worthy. (Aug 2016, TI, Inas)*

Teachers' thoughtfulness about their students' backgrounds led to them being empathetic. These teachers worked hard to understand their students' social living conditions and to do so from their perspectives, using this perspective as a guide to understanding their welfare needs. Three of the teacher participants, Elisa, Jami and Kina, on different occasions, gave money to a student, who lived in poverty, to buy food from the canteen because they knew this student was hungry and would not learn well. Elisa even collected money from other teachers to buy a school uniform for another student. These behaviours were examples of empathetic teachers who were driven to act in ways that showed they cared deeply for the welfare of their students.

Furthermore, acting in ways that enhanced students' motivation was reported by nine teachers and more than half of the students as an expression of thoughtfulness. The encouragement given by the teachers to the students relate to the students' academic development as well as students' social, emotional and spiritual aspects. Across three teacher FGDs, 12 PEIs and seven follow-up interviews, the word 'motivation' was mentioned 44 times while 'to motivate' was stated 14 times. Eight of the 12 teachers thought that a teacher should act in ways designed to motivate them to learn. For example, one teacher commented:

> *To be a teacher is to be a motivator. Kind of giving encouragement that you can make it. Don't feel despondent before trying. That's the key. A teacher should become a motivator, inspiration. (Nov 2015, TFGD2, Ginni)*

The students also talked about the importance of their teachers' motivation to support learning as illustrated in this excerpt:

> *Ami: What do you like most about your teacher that encourages you to learn? (reading a question card)*
> *Ami: She always reminds us and motivates us to get a high score in the next regional exam.*
> *Aldo: Always motivates us, always remind her students to work hard and pray. (Feb 2016, SFGD1)*

Gentleness

Over half of the 12 teachers reported that to care was a form of gentleness. To be gentle meant using: appropriate eye contact, close body proximity, a soft voice and touch. Gentleness was demonstrated in their classroom by making eye contact and smiling before they talked to a student as the following excerpt shows.

> *During my observation, I saw that the teacher looked at the students with a warm, gentle and friendly eye. Her eyes were smiling. She maintained eye contact when she was talking with the student. (Feb 2016, RD)*

Gentleness was also evident in the teachers' body proximity, where they lowered their body to be at the students' eye level as illustrated in the following extract: "*A boy raised his hand and asked something to the teacher. She walked to his table and lowered her body to the same level with the boy." (Jan 2016, CO1, Ginni).* Gentleness was also heard in the use of a soft or lowered voice. All 12 teacher participants talked in calm and shooting tones as this extract shows:

> *After all the students had sat in their chairs, the teacher entered the classroom. One student led the morning prayer. The teacher smiled and said good morning and "as-salamu alaykum"*[10] *to the students. Then he reminded the students to put their mobile phones in the box. He used a soft voice and a friendly tone. (Nov 2015, CO1, Budi)*

Gentle physical touch, particularly by female teachers, was also observed such as by stroking a student's hair or patting their back. This gentle touch was especially evident when a student was sick or sad as the following excerpt show: *"A girl seemed tired. The teacher walked close to her and asked whether she was sick. The teacher stroked her hair and embraced her shoulder." (Nov 2015, CO1, Inas)*

Similar responses were made by the students who saw gentleness as a caring action. For instance, Hanny mentioned: *"A caring teacher is a gentle teacher" (Feb 2016, SFGD 7).* A gentle teacher would express their gentleness while talking to students, especially when reprimanding them. Diana (11 years old) described this gentleness in the following way: *"When Mrs. Sisi was explaining learning material, the students were very noisy. She just told us, 'Don't be like that', gently." (Feb 2016, SFGD 4)*

Patience

To nurture students was also explained by both the teachers and the students in terms of their patience. The teachers and the students remarked that being patient was an essential characteristic of a socially and emotionally competent teacher. When the teachers were asked about their memorable teachers in the FGDs, more than half mentioned the patience of their own school teachers. The act of patience had, in the past, been a bridge to develop better relationships, and it seemed this had left a legacy for these teachers.

[10] As-salamu alaykum is a greeting in Arabic that means "peace be upon you". The greeting is a religious salutation among Muslims, whether socially or within worship and other contexts

There were two ways of exercising patience reported by the teachers and the students. The first practice related to anger management, whilst the second linked to being persistent.

Anger management

The teachers mentioned that they felt negative emotions when a student exhibited aggravating behaviours. In these kinds of situation, the teachers reported the need to manage their anger and to show patience. The teachers agreed that managing any immediate angry response was important in emotional situations. The teachers believed that being mature and managing their anger was essential because their anger would fuel the aggression or irritability of students. However, these teachers pointed out that to keep calm and manage their own anger was not easy as Kina stated:

> *For example, I already gave an advice, but this child was still [showing negative behaviour], so I used a different strategy. I asked him to go to a different room. Being patient was hard... But if not me, then who will educate this student? (Feb 2016, PEI, Kina)*

The teachers showed a good understanding of their own anger management. They explained that to link their emotional experience with spirituality was effective to help them to keep calm as revealed in the following excerpt:

> *When a child was annoying, I was thinking 'This is a test of my patience'. If we already recognized that it was only a patience test, we would not get angry... God tested me, how far was my patience. (Aug 2016, TI, Budi)*

With respect to anger management, most teachers agreed that experience and maturity were correlated to this social-emotional skill. When they had less experience of teaching, over 40% of the teachers had found anger management to be difficult. One teacher mentioned that he used to give physical punishment to his students when he was angry. These teachers believed that the older they were, the more patient they had become.

In the FGDs, the students agreed that they could learn better with a patient teacher and that they did not like a teacher who angered easily. The following excerpt illustrates a student's perspective about a patient teacher:

> *Patient means...when a child made a mistake, the teacher forgave him/her, did not get angry to them, just told them so they would behave better. (Aug 2016, FSFGD 1)*

Six teachers admitted that teaching students with certain characteristics and behaviours was challenging. The students' misbehaviour could provoke the teachers' anger. During the

classroom observations, the teachers' attempt to remain calm was observed on some occasion. This excerpt from my research diary illustrates the story of one teacher's patience:

> *One boy (Jojo) was starting to brawl with two other boys. Jojo was laughing and did not realise that they could fall. Mrs. Jami called Jojo but he ignored it. Mrs. Jami walked closer to the boys and lowered her body. She said to Jojo, "Why do you do this? You can fall." Jojo grinned and stared at Mrs. Jami sharply. He replied, "That's OK. I will be fine." Mrs. Jami talked patiently, "That's not OK. You can hurt. Now sit down." (Jan 2016, COI, Jami)*

Persistence

The teachers also spoke of their in persistence refusing to give up on a students' learning. This persistence is another form of patience. The teachers shared times when they had nearly lost their patience when a student continued to misunderstand the learning material, despite repeated and slow explanations. However, they also described their acceptance that each student was an individual with different cognitive abilities and learning needs. One teacher spoke of his need for patience despite his frustration:

> *I should support him. I need to be patient. I never stop motivating him. One day I gave him an instruction then he forgot the next day. I should remind him again and again. I had a slow student and I need to be patient especially in math. I gave him cards so he could remember the multiplications. It's really challenging my patience. (Aug 2016, TI, Fardi)*

Like the teachers, the students also remarked that teachers' attitudes to refuse to give up on their learning was an act of patience. As one student told me: *"Patience means that a teacher wants to explain the learning material until we understand." (Aug 2016, FSFGD 3)*

In addition, the teachers' persistence to support students' learning led them to differentiate learning activities according to their students' abilities. To accommodate their students' learning needs, the teachers used pedagogical methods in the classroom to engage their students. These methods saw the students being active in their learning – such as discussion, working in small collaborative groups, conducting experiments, playing games, engaging in role play/simulations or going on a field trip. These teachers also used technology such as power point, animations, graphics and video as diverse resources to keep students engaged in their learning.

Summary

The teachers and the students both considered caring and patience as a means to be nurturing in the teacher role. Caring actions were evident in teachers' thoughtfulness, which included being attentive, either to the classroom situation or to students' individual life circumstances. Thoughtfulness was expressed by noticing and responding to their students' needs. Moreover, gentleness was considered by teachers and students as an expression of nurturing. Anger management and persistently c supporting students' learning were seen by teachers and students as examples of patience – an attribute of teachers' social-emotional practice.

5.2.3 Developing classroom harmony

The previous section has shown how 'living a relational philosophy' and 'being nurturing' were perceived by both the teachers and the students as essential attributes of teachers' social-emotional practices. The next section describes 'developing classroom harmony' as the third important attribute of an Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional practices. Developing harmonious relationships in the classroom was related to two organising themes: guiding relationships and having a positive interpersonal approach. Developing classroom harmony reflected the teachers' strategies to create an emotionally positive climate for learning. To create this harmony was an 'art' rather than involving a series of 'techniques'.

Guiding relationships

A common view amongst the teachers and the students was that harmony and equity were important to create positive relationships between individuals in the classroom. Three soci0-cultural principles guided teacher-students and student-student interactions in the classroom: *rukun,* respect and fairness.

Rukun

Rukun, or the Indonesian term for conflict avoidance, was an important guide to managing interpersonal relationships in the classroom. The teachers mentioned that togetherness and the condition of *rukun* were important values in the classroom. One teacher said: *"Classroom community should be rukun. I remind the students, just like in the family, you have brother and sister, should be 'rukun'. That's about togetherness." (Feb 2016, PEI, Budi)*

The principles of *rukun* and togetherness were intentionally taught by the teachers to their students in the routine teaching and learning activities. The teachers showed encouragement for sharing, such as sharing stationary and food. One teacher designed special activities to promote togetherness and *rukun* as illustrated in the following excerpt:

> *I offered it to parents too. The programme was eating together. The students will bring rice and another food for eating together. From that, I could recognise students' characters. If they had not been taught at home, they would take as much food as possible. Some students didn't get the food then. So I said, as a mother, 'You have a lot of friends, a lot of family member here. If you take some food, think about the other.' … This was a real experience about sharing and togetherness. (Feb 2016, PEI, Ginni)*

While the students did not mention *rukun* as a classroom value, they could give examples of how their teachers avoided a conflict. One question in the student FGD was: "If there's a fight between students, what does your teacher do?" In all discussions, the students stated that their teachers would arbitrate, give advice and ask them to apologise to each other in order to avoid further conflict as illustrated in the following excerpt:

> *Husen: If there's a fight between students, what does your teacher do?*
> *Heni: Separate them*
> *Helly: Separate them, then give advice*
> *Yayi: What kind of advice?*
> *Husen: Don't fight again*
> *Heru: Ask them to say sorry to each other (Feb 2016, SFGD 8)*

Respect

The teachers expressed their concerns about generational changes and young people's lack of respect for other people, especially to older people. The teachers were aware that there were some differences between today's students and students from earlier times. The teachers argued that the changes of their students' behaviours were related to globalisation and technology advances. These advances changed their students' behaviours especially their languages, attitudes and manners as one teacher mentioned:

> *The challenge is, as this is the globalisation era, I feel that nowadays students are different from students in let say 2005. There's a change. Formerly, students were very polite. I was close to them and they were polite. Now, I am close, but sometimes, you know what I mean. Their language is impolite. But I always maintain such norms like don't sit at the table. There are norms that they should understand, (like) to respect older people. (Nov 2015, TFGD1, Inas)*

Talking about this issue, the teachers stated that respectful behaviours, especially to older people should be explicitly taught to their students. Being respectful to older people was shown by using proper language[11] and showing good manners. For example, one teacher said: *"It's very basic. How to respect, to be polite, to use proper language to the teachers, to parents, to adults. These should be taught." (Feb 2016, PEI, Anita)*

Responding to bad manners and disrespectful behaviours, the teachers usually gave a direct response such as giving a verbal reprimand, a direct instruction or a non-verbal cue such as looking to the students or shaking their heads.

Fairness

Another teacher attribute to guide relationships was fairness. A common view amongst the teachers and the students showed that equity was important to create positive relationships between people in the classroom.

The teachers defined fairness as treating all students justly and practising a non-judgmental approach. The teachers believed that their students should be treated justly and the classroom rules should be applied to all students. Being fair meant responding to individual needs – which varied meaning they needed to practice flexibly and give consequences to their students depending on the situation for that student. The majority of teachers mentioned the importance of understanding their students' circumstance helped them to treat students equitably. This principle of equity is expressed by one teacher:

> *When a student did not do their homework, we couldn't judge them directly. Like (that you were) naughty. Do not do that. We had to understand first, why they were like that. (Aug 2016, TI, Elisa)*

While the teachers gave more emphasis to equity and to their non-judgemental approach, the students highlighted the importance of not exercising favouritism. These 12 teachers were considered to be fair when they showed concern for the diverse personal situations of all students. Interestingly, 'not having favourites' was raised in seven out of nine student FGDs. One student stated that *"a good teacher should pay attention to all students, not only to those who are smart" (Feb 2016, SFGD 6).*

[11] Speech levels in Javanese constitute a system for showing the degree of formality and the degree of respect felt by the speaker toward the addressee. There are three level of vocabulary: 'ngoko' (non-polite and informal), 'madya' (semi-polite and semi-formal) and 'krama' (polite and formal). Even though not as complex as Javanese language, one feature in Indonesian language is the variations in speech use depending on the rank or status of the speaking partner.

Positive interpersonal approach

The teachers and the students emphasised that teachers' affability and sense of humour were important to ensure positive interpersonal interactions. Moreover, being a friendly and humorous teacher was also important to create a positive classroom climate.

Friendliness

The participating teachers suggested that friendliness was one of the basic requirements to build warm teacher-students relationships and to create a positive learning climate. The teachers believed that being friendly and approachable was essential to build students' trust in them as one teacher said:

> *A friendly and close relationship between teacher and students will influence students' learning. If we have closeness with the children, they will have a responsibility toward their learning. They will be more enthusiastic too. At least they will feel happy to go to school. As teachers, we should make them comfortable. (Feb 2016, PEI, Hadiyah)*

Furthermore, the teachers made an effort to be sociable. Five of the 12 teachers stated that they enjoyed chatting with their students. As one teacher said:

> *In the break time, usually I don't just sit in the office. I meet students, listen to their stories, we eat together. In the time like this, they become open to me. (Nov 2015, TFGDI, Inas)*

According to the students, have a friendly teacher was one reason that made them happy to go to school. A friendly teacher was one of the best things about their classroom and school. To quote one student:

> *Heni: What's the best thing about your school? (reading a question card)*
> *Hita: The teachers are friendly (Feb 2016, SFGD 8)*

In addition, three of nine student FGDs indicated that when teachers were friendly it showed a willingness to open up their personal life to the students. As one student said:

> *Brian: She likes to share stories.*
> *Yayi: What stories does she share?*
> *Brian: Her experiences. (Feb 2016, SFGD 2)*

In the classroom observation, the teachers also demonstrated friendly attitudes which could be seen from their interactions with students. An excerpt from one classroom observation data

illustrates this friendly interaction between a teacher and her students through giving of her time to talk:

> *Before the school bell, some students sat and chat. The teacher came to them and joined the conversation. She asked about their weekend activities. She also made a funny dance with the students. She also joked around with a student who set a photo of him with female students as a profile picture in the Blackberry Messenger. (Jan 2016, CO 1, Ginni)*

Humour

As the above excerpt shows, humour was an important attribute of socially and emotionally competent teachers. When talking about their memories and experiences as a student, six of the 12 teachers mentioned their humorous teachers as is explained here:

> *This teacher was very funny. In teaching, instead of being fierce she was humorous. … Her behaviour was so comical. That was memorable for me. (Nov 2015, TFGD3, Anita)*

Moreover, being a fun and humorous teacher was important to help their students to relax and to learn effectively, as one teacher put it:

> *I always intersperse teaching with jokes and humours. So that when they began to tense, they could relax again. I think, relaxation is the most effective condition to learn. (Feb 2016, PEI, Hadiyah)*

Interestingly, humour was perceived by the students as one of the most essential attributes of a social-emotionally competent teacher. The words 'funny' and 'joke(s)' were mentioned 55 times across nine student FGDs.

> *Irma: What do you like most about your teacher that encourages you to learn? (reading a question card)*
> *Ine: She is fun. So it makes me learn comfortably.*
> *Yayi: What do you mean by fun?*
> *Ine: She gives us jokes and funny stories while teaching (Jan 2016, SFGD 9)*

Besides telling jokes while teaching, the teachers were light-hearted about certain events as illustrated in this story told by one of the teachers:

> *The teacher asked the students to finish the math questions in the work book. One boy name Heru did not sit still. He stood up, he walked to his friend's table, than he borrowed his friend's eraser with loud voice. The teacher walked to him and stood near his table. The teacher smiled and asked Heru, "Heru, why are you so active today? What did you have for breakfast?" One boy answered, "Chemical liquid, Mam." Another boy said, "Tadpoles, Mam." The teacher laughed and said, "Haha… Grilled tadpoles?" Heru grinned and sat on his chair and began to work on his book. (Nov 2015, CO1, Hasna)*

Summary

The above findings indicate that to establish affectionate and harmonious relationships in the classroom, two approaches were used by these 12 teachers: guiding relationships and having a positive interpersonal approach. Guiding relationships include *rukun,* respect and fairness; while teachers' positive interpersonal approach includes friendliness and humour. These two approaches were found to establish harmonious classrooms which was considered to be the best condition to support Indonesian students' learning.

5.2.4 Regulating emotions

Thus far, this chapter has shown how 'living a relational philosophy', 'being nurturing' and 'developing classroom harmony' are the main attributes of the Indonesian teachers' social and emotional practices. This final section addresses the teachers' strategies to regulate their own emotions in the classroom. The teachers in this study believed that emotion regulation was an essential skill in for teachers. However, in examining teachers' emotion regulation, it is important to understand that most Indonesian people consider *emosi* (emotion) as having a negative or unhappy connotation. One teachers' comment below illustrates the different meaning of emotion:

> *I am only a human. I have that emotion and I can't say that I never get angry. Yes, I get angry. But rather than make students afraid, I try to make them understand my purpose. (Aug 2016, TI, Elisa)*

One interesting aspect of teachers' experiences to regulate emotions was an understanding that doing so would help them to manage their students' emotions as well as to control classroom dynamic. The teachers were most likely to try to control their own anger arising from students' misbehaviour or emotional problem. The teachers believed that restraining their negative emotions would help them to prevent students' potential negative emotions from escalating and interrupting the teaching and learning process. Talking about the importance of acting in ways that did not escalate negative emotions, one teacher said:

> *One of my students was very emotional... getting angry easily... he kicked the chair... If I became emotional too, I would create a negative emotional classroom situation. So when he was emotional, I controlled myself to be not too emotional. (Feb 2016, PEI, Kina)*

The teachers who sought to manage their emotions while in the classroom reported that they used various strategies to help them to down-regulate their own negative emotions. The

strategies they used may be divided into two organising themes: religious strategies and general strategies.

Religious strategies

Both the Muslim and Christian teachers showed how religiosity shaped their emotion regulation. When the teachers were asked about how they managed their negative emotions, the majority commented that religious teachings guided them. There were two strategies reported by the teachers. The first was to pray and the second one was to understand God's will as written in scripture.

Being prayerful

The first religious based strategy implemented by the teachers was praying. The Muslim and Christian teachers stated that they believe that through praying, God always helped them to manage their negative emotions. One Muslim teacher indicated that praying helped her to be peaceful:

> *Kina: We can't live by ourselves. Moreover, we are believers. I believe that students are God's surrogate. God loves His creatures. . . . When I feel like I want to give up, I surrender my student back to God. I ask God to help me.*
> *Yayi: So, you pray. Can you tell me more about this?*
> *Kina: It's my experience…praying helps me to feel peace. It happens when we believe. When I do zikr (a Muslims' rituals to say God's name repeatedly), I feel relaxed. All in this life will go back to God. So, just surrender to God and we will find peace. (Aug 2016, TI, Kina)*

In the same way, one Christian teacher remarked that she always asked God to help her to control her anger by "*ask[ing] God to help me. I always say God's name. I ask Him to give me patience, patience in my life" (Feb 2016, PEI, Ginni).*

God's will

Knowing God's will enables teachers to reshape their view of a negative situation from following a personal impulse to obeying His command to act peacefully. Four of the 12 teachers reminded themselves of God's will to prevent negative emotions from fully developing. One teacher shared her frustrating experience to cope with a difficult student:

> *I cried at that time. I tried to manage my anger then I cried. I couldn't understand why the condition was so bad, but then I remembered that this is my job, my responsibility. God had given this student to me. So yeah… just back to that belief. This is amanah. So… OK, I had to manage my emotion. (Feb 2016, PEI, Kina)*

The teachers commented that students' misbehaviours might be God's way of assessing their willingness and ability to control themselves. One teacher talked about being tested by God:

> *Let's say, the children did an unexpected behaviours like fighting, not doing the homework. I should understand, that this was a [spiritual] challange for me. Not because these kids broke the rules, but because God wanted know, how good I am in controlling myself. (Aug 2016, TI, Budi)*

Another way in which teachers regulate their negative emotions was by responding to it in a way authorised by the Quran. Three teachers indicated how the Quran regulated their anger. They mentioned that there is a hadith[12] that is narrated as "Don't be angry, enter paradise!" The following excerpt illustrates teachers' obedience to Quran as a guideline to manage their anger: *"According to Islamic teaching, there's a hadith mention, don't get angry, if you get angry you will be far from heaven" (Aug 2016, TI, Hasna).*

General strategies

The teachers were also likely to regulate their anger or their own frustration in response to students' misbehaviour through the use of preventive strategies that served to divert their attention and avoid negative emotional expressions. The teachers also reported that they used several responsive strategies to manage their own emotions once they experienced a negative emotion.

Preventive action

Six of the 12 teachers reported a variety of ways to prevent negative emotions from escalating. These teachers utilised these strategies either before school or at the emotion cue. These teachers reported two strategies that they practiced prior to school: arriving early so they were not rushed and thinking positive thoughts.

In all three FGDs, the teachers agreed that ensuring a work-life balance was not easy. The teachers recognised that family problems could impact their emotions as teachers. They stated that spouse and family supports were very important to regulate their emotions. Four female teachers who were under 40 years old and had young children at home, said that a busy morning routine was a trigger for negative emotions. They mentioned that they tried to

[12] Hadith is a record of the traditions or sayings of the Prophet Muhammad, revered and received as a major source of religious law and moral guidance, second only to the authority of the Qurʾān, the holy book of Islam.

manage the morning routine so that they could come earlier to school to prepare their lessons as illustrated in this following excerpt:

> *Usually I have a rushed morning as I have little children that I take care of. If I arrive in school just in time, I won't be focused. So I try to manage my morning routine at home then I can arrive in school earlier for preparation. (Nov 2015, TFGD1, Hadiyah)*

Another before school strategies was to think positive thoughts. Four teachers mentioned that their students are their source of happiness and motivation. As one teacher said: "*For me, coming to school feels just the same as when I met my boyfriend. It makes me happy. It motivates me." (Nov 2015, TFGD1, Hasna).*

Preventing negative emotions could also be done by making attempts to modify the situation. For example, when one teacher was asked what strategies he used to regulate their unhappy emotions, he said:

> *I like to do something that makes the children and me happy. Like teaching with video, singing a song, playing a musical instrument, presentation. As long as the activities do not diverge [from the learning], I think it always useful. (Nov 2015, TFGD1, Fardi)*

Responsive strategy

Once a negative emotion was experienced, the teachers used several strategies to regulate their emotions. When the teachers felt anger, they reported that they used a cognitive strategy such as self-talk and a behavioural strategy such as physically withdrawing from students. One teacher mentioned her experience employed self-talk:

> *There're so many challenges [in managing emotion]. But I always talk to myself that I am a teacher, I am older, a mature person who should understand that they are children. They're young and need guidance. When they're naughty, I have to restrain my emotion. So when I give advice to them, my brain is not in an angry condition. (Feb 2016, PEI, Ginni)*

Besides using cognitive strategies, the teachers reported that they used behavioural strategies to manage their emotions with emotion cues. The behavioural strategy that was used by four of the 12 teachers was by physically moving away from the classroom or a particular student. One teacher explained that he preferred avoiding situations when an outburst of temper tended to occur easily:

> *When there's an impolite student, honestly I feel annoyed. But if I am not control my feeling, this student will get [angry] again. Then I avoid this student for a while. (Feb 2016, PEI, Fardi)*

While eight of the 12 teachers reported that they managed their negative emotions at the emotion cue, other teachers revealed that they waited to use strategies later in the day. After a bad day, these teachers usually talked to their colleagues, school principal or friends to help them put into perspective. One teacher said: *"When I feel really irritated by students, I talk to other teacher, to the school principal. Just to share. Then I feel better." (Aug 2016, TI, Elisa).*

Students' misbehaviour was reported as the main source of a teacher's negative emotions. However, students' lack of effort could also be the cause of teacher's frustration. One excerpt below exemplified self-talk as a strategy to cope with her frustration when her students were not motivated to learn and did not make an effort to attempt a task:

> *Previously I was depressed. . . What kind of kids that I taught? Whose kids are they? But in the long run, 'If nobody want to teach these kids, who will teach them.' I learnt to be sincere about this. I will accompany them with all I can do. (Nov 2015, TFGD2, Jami)*

Summary

The teachers who participated in this study used both religious and general strategies to regulate their negative emotions in the classrooms. The teachers indicated that they combined these two strategies when they encountered students' misbehaviour or lack of effort. The teachers believed and experienced that their faith and relationship with God served to help them to regulate their emotions. However, the teachers revealed that cognitive and behavioural strategies to such as self-talk, talking with colleagues, coming earlier to school and physically moving away from the unfavourable situation. Furthermore, the teachers were convinced that emotion regulation was a crucial skill if learning was to be promoted.

5.3 Discussion

The aim of Study 1 was to explore the complex nature of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices in their primary school classrooms. Four key components of teachers' social-emotional practices were reported as summarised in Table 5.3 below. Together these components make up an Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practice. These four components are now discussed in relation to the contemporary literature.

Table 5. 3.

Key components and sub-components of teachers' social-emotional practice

Components	Sub-components
Living a relational philosophy	Religious values Social-emotional attitudes
Engaging in a nurturing manner	Care Patience
Developing classroom harmony	Guiding the development of relationships Positive interpersonal approach
Regulating emotions	Religious strategies General strategies

5.3.1 Living a relational philosophy

Socially-emotionally competent Indonesian teachers live a relational philosophy through their efforts to express their intrapersonal beliefs about their relationship with God and other people in the context of their profession as teachers. My teacher participants valued their relationship with students as well as their relationship with God. In the section that follows, Indonesian teachers' religious values and social-emotional attitudes are discussed to show each shapes their relational philosophy.

Living religious values

In all cases, these Indonesian teachers reported religious beliefs and practices as shaping their teaching practice. This finding makes sense because religion is the essential basis of Indonesian identity, and it serves as a unique function in psychological, social and cultural processes (Ysseldyk, Matheson, & Anisman, 2010). Instead of pursuing personal achievements and self-interests, which is more typical in western cultures, Indonesians believe that teaching is an occupation focused on fulfilling God's vocation to support the development of His children. Schwartz and Huismans (1995) argued a similar point in their view, that religiosity reflects benevolent values. Religion underlines a selflessness when relating to others; and it highlights the value of building up and encouraging others, rather than focusing on self.

The teachers participating in this study also believed that teaching is a form of religious service. These teachers believed that once they became a teacher, their job was a mandate from God - *amanah.* Even though *amanah* is rooted in Islamic teaching, this word is also used across other religions in Indonesia. Furthermore, my teacher participants saw teaching as a ministry rather than a job. These teachers believed that they should accomplish their job as it

will be held accountable to God. This finding aligns with Agung and Husni (2016), who argued that *amanah* in Indonesia consists of: integrity, action and benevolence. Previous studies have not investigated *amanah* in an educational setting, however, the concept of *amanah* proposed by Agung and Husni (2016) can be shown in my study to relate to teachers' understanding and enactment of their teaching pratice. By taking on the mandate from God, *amanah* of teaching is to fulfil what God has entrusted to them. This belief leads them to teach to serve God.

Furthermore, the participating teachers described teaching as a noble profession – one that supported students' learning and development and at the same time gave them an opportunity for them to worship and to serve God. These findings align with Suryani, Watt and Richardson's (2016) research findings regarding the reasons why Indonesian student-teachers chose to become teachers. These researchers found that religion was one of the main motivations for Indonesian people to choose a career in teaching. By contrast, similar study in nearby Singapore identified that student-teachers were intrinsically motivated to teach because of their interest in teaching, their love of the subject, or to answer a calling to fulfil a mission (Chong & Low, 2009) Although their participants reported mission and calling, there was no implicit religious basis to select teaching as a career. Likewise, Sinclair's (2008) study in Australia did not detect religious factors as a motivation to pursue a career in teaching. Sinclair found that Australian student teachers have multiple motivations to teach; the most common of which was their dispositions and abilities to work with children and the intellectual stimulation gained in teaching.

Living social-emotional values

Besides religious values, the participating teachers also reported how their social-emotional values served to shape their teaching. The teachers' social-emotional values included beliefs that primary school education forms the foundation for the next level of education and the future lives of their students. The teachers also believed that their students were *their* children who needed parental-like guidance to reach maturity. A possible explanation for these beliefs is the Javanese conceptions of maturity. Javanese people believe that to be an *authentic Javanese*, one should exercise ethical behaviour which consists of *bener* (being correct), *pener* (behaving appropriately) and *slamet* (acting safely) (Sutarto, 2006). Sutarto noted that Javanese culture is classified into four behavioural categories: *Jawa* (Javanese), *durung Jawa* (not yet Javanese), *ora Jawa* (not like Javanese) and *dudu Jawa* (not Javanese at all). Javanese children are in the category "not yet Javanese" (*durung Jawa*) as they are still immature

observed in their lack of self-control and respect (Geertz, 1961). Thus, primary school students need adults' guidance to manage themselves and to respect others. In a classroom setting, my teacher participants believed that they were significant adults, alongside their parents, to support their students' social-emotional development.

The findings that social-emotionally capable teachers in Indonesia support the *not yet Javanese* children to be *authentic Javanese* signals a disposition to develop a sense of family in the Indonesian primary school classrooms. The teacher participants positioned themselves as "parents" of their students, while the students felt supported by and valued these parental attitudes in classrooms. This teachers-as-parents belief was also reported by Kurnianingsih, Yuniarti, and Kim (2012) who argued that the personal relationship between a child and their parents is extended to the teacher who then becomes a parent-in-loci, and is treated as a trusted family member. In the same way, studies in China showed that a teacher and student relationship is akin to that of a parent-child (Watkins, 2000; Yin & Lee, 2012). Some Western researchers (e.g., Dever & Karabenick, 2011; Walker, 2008) examined parenting styles proposed by Baumrind (1978) in school context and found that authoritative style was positively associated with students' development and achievement. However, these studies did not implicitly mention familial relationship between teachers and students. In a Western view, instead of being seen as parents in loci, teachers are seen as important adults to support children's learning.

5.3.2 Engaging in a nurturing manner

The current study revealed two basic kinds of nurturing in a classroom setting: caring and patience. Caring was shown by teachers' thoughtfulness to students' conditions and needs as well as by their gentleness toward their students. Patience was reflected by teachers' persistence to support students' learning and also by their ability to manage anger in a negative situation.

Being a caring teacher

The participating teachers and students reported the importance of caring and being cared for in the classroom. The teachers talked about "ethic of care" (Noddings, 1984, 2012) as a professional stance to their practice. Commitment to care is particularly strong among primary school teachers in western ideologies where they feel concern, affection, and even love for their students (Hargreaves, 1994). Hargreaves continues to argue that teaching is a

caring occupation which requires active emotional labour, which for many teachers it is a labour of love. Isenbarger and Zembylas (2006) in their action research study extending this idea by arguing that teaching requires not only "love" but also "labour". Positive teacher-student relationships are not a stable condition, instead, they are constantly negotiated and renegotiated. Thus, to be a caring teacher in Indonesia is an intellectually as well as a socially and emotionally challenging role (Isenbarger & Zembylas, 2006).

My study has revealed that knowing students' backgrounds became the foundation for teachers to demonstrate thoughtfulness - the first aspect of caring. Consistent with Woessman's (2004) findings, my teacher participants argued that they needed to get to know their students' backgrounds as they understood so as to promote learning. Woessman also found that the impact of family background on students' cognitive skills is strong. The teachers participating in this present study acknowledged that they spent time and effort to get to know their students by talking to them and visiting their homes. The students valued their teachers' personal dialogue with them and their families. Alder (2002) argued that communication between teachers and students is essential in the process of getting to know each other. In a similar manner, Stronge (2007) pointed out that a caring teacher is interested in what students say, listens carefully to and values their contributions, and is genuinely interested in their lives.

Caring was also expressed in the research classroom by thr teachers' gentleness. This finding aligns with Stronge (2007) in his work exploring teachers' effectiveness. He argued that caring teachers demonstrate their understanding through tenderness and gentleness. According to his research, these attitudes of tenderness and gentleness convince younger students to feel safe at school, to believe that they will be successful at school and that they will be reunited with their parents at the end of the school day. My student participants reported that they like a gentle teacher and their comments led me to reflect on the importance of students' basic emotional needs being met if they are to learn. Students need to be reassured that they are loved and safe. Maslow's (1943) well-known Hierarchy of Needs highlights the importance of meeting 'personal security' and 'social' needs before other needs, such as self-esteem and self-actualisation, can be attained. Students, who feel they are valued and belong at school, are academically, socially and emotionally advantaged (Irvin, Meece, Byun, Farmer, & Hutchins, 2011; Shochet, Smith, Furlong, & Homel, 2011). For instance, Irvin et al. (2011) found that a sense of valuing and belonging was predictive of students' educational achievement and aspirations. In a like manner, Shochet et al. (2011) noted that each factor of school belonging,

namely caring relations, acceptance and rejection, contributed to the prediction of students' negative affect.

Being a patient teacher

This study revealed that being patient is about persisting to support students' learning and also to manage their negative emotions such as anger. Some studies have found "patience" to be one of the characteristics of effective teachers (Cheung et al., 2008; S. Murray, 2011). In their study with Hong Kong teachers, Cheung et al. (2008) found "patience" to be one of the personal qualities of effective teachers. Likewise, S. Murray (2011) found that patience is a teacher's attribute acknowledged by Australian students as a supporting a positive learning environment. The concept of patience has recently been the focus of religious books which argue that people should be patient when facing a difficult time in life and when submitting to God's commandments (Asma, 2010; Turfe, 2009). In an Indonesian context, *'sabar'* (patient) is widely used in everyday life. For example, Indonesian people use the concept of *sabar* to cope with any problem or negative emotion. Furthermore, it is encouraging to compare the findings of this present study with those found by Subandi (2011). In his Indonesian study about patience, Subandi identified five aspects of patience: (1) self-control, (2) resiliency, (3) persistence, (4) reality acceptance and (5) staying calm. The Indonesian teachers and students participating in my study defined a patient teacher as one who does not give up on students' learning and is slow to anger.

Teachers' persistence to support students' learning was valued in my study as an important aspect of patience. Persistence was manifested in differentiating learning strategies to serve students' individual learning needs. Students differ in their learning characteristics which affect their capacity to function as a learner (J. P. Shapiro, Sewell, & DuCette, 1995). The teachers participating in my study argued that the learning activities they plan for should recognise their students' abilities, interests and offer choice in the way they respond to their learning. This finding corroborates the findings from Aitken and Sinnema (2008), who suggested that effective pedagogies be designed by considering students' diverse motivations and interests. The teachers participating in my study designed activities to arouse students' motivation and build on their interests to support engagement which in most cases leads to learning. They also applied a variety of teaching methods such as lecturing, presenting, developing group projects, role playing, conducting field trips and using technology and instructional resources to accommodate their students' conditions and needs.

Patience in my study is also related to managing undesirable emotions. According to Hargreaves (1998), good teaching is charged with desirable emotions However, it is impossible for teachers to have desirable emotions like joy, pride and satisfaction all of the time (Hargreaves, 1998; Zembylas, 2003). Teachers can also experience undesirable emotions such as anger and frustration (Hensley, Pekrun, Goetz, Frenzel, & Keller, 2014). Anger has many causes in the classroom such as goal related incongruence, such as when students perform a negative or dangerous behaviour or when they do not do their best (Chang, 2009; Hosotani & Imai-Matsumura, 2011). While Japanese teachers expressed anger in four ways: direct staging, suppression, losing their temper and extinguishing anger (Hosotani & Imai-Matsumura, 2011), the teachers participating in my study tended more to suppress their anger than to lose their temper. The teachers agreed that the best way to manage anger was by remaining calm and showing patience. According to Niels Mulder (2005), Javanese culture restricts individual expression of self, so, any personal expression of emotions is regarded as impolite, embarrassing and a violation of the others' privacy. Taking these cultural explanations into consideration, it is understandable that the teachers and students participating in my study believed that teachers should manage their anger.

5.3.3 Developing Classroom Harmony

This study revealed the importance of teachers' ability to balance control with being fun-loving and friendly. My teacher participants expressed their beliefs that firmness should be combined with a positive approach to establish harmonious relationships. Furthermore, the student participants reported that while clear boundaries are needed to manage the classroom, they also wanted a classroom climate that enabled them to enjoy their learning. Teachers' friendly and humorous approaches were highly valued by these students. Developing classroom harmony in Study 1 included: guiding the development of relationships and engaging in positive ways.

Guiding the development of relationships

Guiding the development of relationships aligns with the ideas of Harvey and Evans (2003) who suggested that socially-emotionally teachers effectively set guidelines, limits and boundaries in the classroom. These authors designed a model of "emotional interpersonal guidelines" which outlined the emotional standards and boundaries. In my study, guiding the

development of relationships refers to socially appropriate ethical principles that students should follow as they relate to other classroom members.

The teachers in Study 1 guided the regulation of their students' behaviour caused by an underlying emotion. Findings revealed three principles impacting the manner in which they guided relationships: *rukun* (conflict avoidance), respect and fairness. *Rukun* is one of the basic Javanese values socialised by parents to their children (Idrus, 2005). Maintaining a calm and peaceful condition is valued highly because tranquillity related to life on earth and to the afterlife (Susatyo, 2008). The teachers themselves were guided by this emphasis to maintaining cooperation in the classroom as is the case in society to prevent behaviours that might create conflict (Handayani & Novianto, 2004; Magnis-Suseno, 2001).

Recent studies regarding *rukun* in Indonesia focus on interreligious areas (e.g. Al Qurtuby, 2013; Butler, 2016; Robinson 2016) , while others discuss it in family context (e.g. Hakimi, Hayati, Marlinawati, Winkvist, & Ellsberg, 2001; Hayati, Högberg, Hakimi, Ellsberg, & Emmelin, 2011; Wieringa, 2015) . There are no published Indonesia studies that investigated *rukun* in an educational context. My study appears to be first of its kind to show how *rukun* is an important principle to guide the learning-focused relationships between students and students, and between teachers and students in the classroom. *Rukun,* for Indonesian teachers is the basic principle underpinning the development of a positive learning climate: their classrooms developed as a community of learners through their emotional and social connections shaped by the concept of *rukun* (Sewell & George, 2008).

The second principle that the teachers used to guide learning relationships in the classroom is respect. The principle of respect is based on the Indonesian belief that all social relations are hierarchical (Geertz, 1961), thus, those in higher positions should be respected (Magnis-Suseno, 1981). The teachers my study conveyed that their students should respect them by virtue of their position as a teacher. Indonesian teachers are highly respected professionals, and enjoy holding a high status and respect in society (Maulana, Opdenakker, den Brok, & Bosker, 2011). Western literature regards respect in education settings in broader term. Instead of emphasising respect for teachers and older people, respect in a Western school context applies to peers and to self (e.g. Covel & Howe, 2001; Hirschstein, Edstrom, Frey, Snell, & MacKenzie, 2007). By contrast, most teachers and students participating in my study used the word "care" instead of "respect" to describe positive interactions between students. The teachers revealed that respect is a basic rule that they teach in primary classrooms through encouraging their students to show respect to teachers, parents and their friends'

parents. Teaching the students how to respect older people would ensure that they developed positive relationships with others throughout their life. This finding can be explained through the research of Idrus (2005) who reported that respect is one of the key values passed on from generation to generation in Javanese families. Idrus pointed out that in order to establish social harmony each person should manage and express themselves in accordance with the normalised social order and guidelines. This principle is alive and well in the Indonesian classrooms as a microcosm of society.

Guiding the development of relationships required fairness – the third principle. The participating teachers and students both highlighted the importance of a teacher's sense of fairness as a way to create a positive learning climate. These findings are in accordance with recent international studies indicating that fairness is an important characteristic of a good teacher (e.g., Arthur, Kristjánsson, Cooke, Brown, & Carr, 2015; Koski-Heikkinen, Määttä, & Uusiatti, 2014). Fairness, according to my participants is the quality of making judgments that are free from discrimination. This finding aligns with the idea of Debnam, Johnson, Waasdorp, and Bradshaw (2014) that equity in a classroom context does not mean treating everyone the same, rather giving each student the right, and often different, resources to succeed. The term "classroom justice" has been coined to refer to this idea of fairness regarding successful process and outcomes (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004).

Using a positive interpersonal approach

Having discussed how classroom harmony is maintained through teachers' guidance of relationships, this section addresses the ways in which a teacher's positive interpersonal approach can act as a balancing. The teachers and students in this study acknowledged the importance of a friendly and approachable manner in order to develop close learning relationships. A friendly manner was identified as a quality of effective teachers (Beishuizen et al., 2001; Bland & Sleightholme, 2012). The teachers argued that friendliness helps them to establish a close bond with their students and the students maintained that a friendly teacher makes them enjoy schooling. This finding aligns with previous studies showing that teachers' friendliness and extraversion are associated with positive interpersonal contact with students (Cano-García, Padilla-Muñoz, & Carrasco-Ortiz, 2005; Kokkinos, 2007). In addition, Buela and Mamman Joseph (2015) found a significant relationship between teachers' extraversion personality trait and teaching effectiveness. These authors argued that effective teachers tend to be enthusiastic, like to talk and enjoy being with their students.

The present study also revealed the importance of teachers' sense of humour to create warm connections with students. My teacher participants argued that the use of humour assisted them to establish a relaxed classroom which increased students' interests in learning and the students also confirmed this. This finding aligns with evidence from previous studies (e.g., Arikan, Taser, & Saraç-Süzer, 2008; Läänemets, Kalamees-Ruubel, & Sepp, 2012) that sense of humour is an important disposition of a good teacher. This result may be explained by the fact that humour can facilitate a more relaxed classroom environment, increase students' interest to listen, help them to feel part of the class which improves teacher-student relationships (Abraham et al., 2014; Garner, 2006). However, humour needs to be used in a classroom in moderation. To develop feelings of warmth and closeness with students, teachers should avoid negative or sarcastic humour (Banas, Dunbar, Rodriguez, & Liu, 2011). Sarcasm, ridicule, humiliating remarks intimidates and cause intense tension among students (Jeder, 2015).

5.3.4 Regulating Emotion

The final aspect of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practice is their ability to regulate their own emotions. The teachers participating in this study reported various emotion regulation strategies while interacting with their students. These strategies are categorised into general and religious emotion regulation strategies. My study also highlighted the value of teachers' abilities to down-regulate their negative emotions; being calm and unafraid supported their learning.

General strategies to regulate emotions

The participating teachers demonstrated general strategies such as positive self-talk, deep breathing and talking to colleagues as mechanisms to manage their emotions. These same general strategies are also used to manage emotions by American teachers (Sutton, 2004), Finnish teachers (Jiang et al., 2016) and Chinese teachers (Gong et al., 2013). For example, Gong et al. (2013) reported that Chinese teachers used various strategies to control their emotions before, in and after class such as by thinking positively, letting go of the a situation or seeking advice from others. The teachers in Study 1 talked about a variety of strategies that could be classified according to Gross's (1998b) categories of emotion regulation strategies: preventative (antecedent-focused) and responsive (response-focused). All 12 participating teachers in this present study used both preventative and responsive strategies.

These teachers used some strategies to prevent negative emotions from escalating like through modifying situations (e.g., revising lessons, having the class engage quietly, telling a joke) or attention deployment (e.g., changing to another topic, ignoring the situation, consulting with colleagues). The teachers also reported using responsive strategies which include behavioural strategies (e.g., physically withdrawing, deep breathing, controlling facial features) and cognitive strategies (e.g., thinking positive thoughts, talking to family).

Religious strategies to regulate emotions

It is interesting to note that religious strategies have not previously been described in studies about teachers' emotion regulation. However, it has been observed that praying can help to manage negative emotions (Bade & Cook, 2008; Sharp, 2010). The teachers participating in this study reported that praying at any time, helped them to release negative emotions and to feel calm. This finding supports Sharp's (2010) research which showed that interaction with God through prayer gives individuals another "being" to whom they can express and release anger and to whom they can "zone out" from negative situations causing the emotions. Zoning out prevented negative emotional experiences from occurring in the first place by discontinuing awareness of a negative stimuli from entering cognitive awareness. By interacting with God, the teachers were able to ignore or distract themselves from the negative emotions so they could continue the classroom activity peacefully.

Furthermore, the finding of this study may be explained by the idea that individuals usually turn to their social support networks or significant others to support them to manage their emotions (Thoits, 2011). Communication with supportive others provides individuals with emotion regulation resources. Likewise, interaction with imagined others, likes in prayer, offers individuals a similar resource (Sharp, 2010). Rivers, Brackett, Katulak, and Salovey (2007) who investigated emotion regulation strategies propose that seeking comfort from other people, or turning to prayer or religion is a technique to regulate sadness and anger. Prayer is intentionally chosen as a strategy to manage negative emotions especially when individuals cannot receive support from their immediate social network (Sharp & Carr, 2017). In a classroom setting where teachers cannot leave a class unsupervised, prayer provides teachers with perceived social support to manage their negative emotions.

5.3.5 Overcoming Limitations of Study 1

Although this study has reached its aims, there were some unavoidable limitations. During the observational phase, my presence as an observer can potentially influenced the everyday interactions. Aspects such as forming a genuine rapport with the participants and my being aware of possible obtrusiveness helped to mitigate this limitation. Factors which were difficult to expose during classroom observation, such as teachers' values and emotions, were included in the interview and FGD.

Another limitation of this qualitative study related to the participant demographics. It was hoped that my participants would be a balanced mixture of female and male teachers with various ages, teaching experiences, religions and ethnic groups. Instead, out of the 12 teacher participants in Study 1, there were only three male teachers. In addition, there were nine Muslim teachers and three Catholic teachers and all of them were Javanese. Teachers, as well as other socialising agents, focus on practices that vary across religious and cultural contexts. Thus, conducting this study in other areas in Indonesia would be valuable.

5.4 Summary

The present study was designed to identify teachers' social-emotional practices in their primary school classroom. Four aspects of the Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices were identified: living a relational philosophy, engaging in a nurturing manner, developing classroom harmony and regulating emotions. These four aspects show a degree of overlap rather than having discrete boundaries.

These teachers recognised that religion and their social-emotional values were the foundation of their profession. They believed that teaching is a job through which they can serve God, and they adopted paternal attitudes in their relationships with the students, believing in the value of primary education.

These teachers were also nurturing by showing they cared and through their patience. They knew how their thoughtfulness and gentleness affected their relationships with students. Being patient meant persisting and regulating their negative emotions so as to enable a positive classroom climate.

The third social-emotional practice exhibited by this small group of Indonesian teachers was the way they established classroom harmony. These teachers described being sensitive to the cultural principles of *rukun,* where respect and fairness were important values in their classroom interaction. These teachers were also able to maintain strong and warm relationships with their students by being friendly and humorous.

Finally, social-emotionally competent teachers in Indonesia said they regulated their emotions. These teachers managed their behaviour even when emotionally aroused by challenging situations and used religious and general preventive and responsive strategies. They believed that emotion regulation was beneficial for teaching effectiveness as well as for supporting students' positive emotions.

Further research into the present study is necessary, not only to validate the qualitative findings, but also to develop a coherent structure to connect each type of social-emotional behaviour so that teachers' social-emotional practices can be better understood. Thus, two interrelated quantitative studies were conducted to corroborate these findings and attempt to address the limitation of the present study. The first quantitative study (Study 2) intends to validate or refine a systematic structure for representing teachers' social-emotional practices. While the second quantitative study (Study 3) aims to establish the social-emotional practices that Indonesian teachers employ through teachers' and students' subjective ratings and to assess the association between teachers' social-emotional practices and student-teacher relationship, students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing. These studies are reported in Chapters Six and Seven respectively.

Chapter Six
Study 2: Mapping Indonesian Teaching Practices

6.1 Introduction

Study 1 revealed four themes from Indonesian primary school teachers and students about teachers' social-emotional practices, i.e., *Living a relational philosophy, Nurturing, Developing classroom harmony* and *Regulating emotions*. However, it did not identify how these four themes were related to each other, nor did it show how their underlying structure could be used to measure teachers' social-emotional practices. Therefore, Study 2 was conducted.

Study 2 aims to validate the findings of Study 1 as well as to understand the underlying structure of social-emotional teaching practices in order to develop an approach to measure these practices in an Indonesian context. A thorough measurement is needed to facilitate the research progression in this field in Indonesia. When there is more research, it is hoped that there is more understanding on the educational practices. In turn, the understanding will result to better construction of teachers' professional development and training program.

This chapter first outlines the methods used in this phase (Section 6.2) including the data analysis methods. Two methods of analysis, Hierarchical Cluster Analysis (HCA) and Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) methods were used to interpret the data. After outlining the methods used in the second phase, the chapter, then, discusses the results obtained from the HCA and MDS (Section 6.3). The results from HCA and MDS describe graphically how an individual or group conceptually arrange a specific set of ideas (Carter, Enyedy, Goodyear, Arcinue, & Puri, 2009). A three-dimensional (3D) map of teachers' social-emotional practices was developed using MDS. Identification of item clusters within the 3D map was acquired using HCA. At the end of this chapter, there are summary and discussion of the findings (Section 6.4 and 6.5).

6.2 Study 2 Methods

6.2.1 Participants

A convenience sample of 72 university student-teachers in Yogyakarta, Indonesia was recruited to participate in Study 2 through my personal contact with a lecturer who worked in that university. All participants ware Indonesian and the sample comprised of 68 (94%) women and 4 (6%) men. The age range was between 20 – 22 years (*Mean* = 20.19 years, *SD* = 0.68). These participants belonged to two classes. Class A consisted of 38 students and Class B consisted of 34 students. Students in Class A completed the items from a teacher's perspectives while the students in Class B completed the items from a student's perspectives. Bimler and Kirkland (1998) and Coxon (1999) suggest a sample size of 30 or more to produce stable map structures. Further, Tullis and Wood (2004) and Harloff and Coxon (2007) recommend using a sample of 20 – 30 participants. Hence, according to these recommendations, my sample is regarded as suitable and sufficient to generate stable results.

6.2.2 Measures

Two instruments were used in this study: Teachers' social and emotional practices - Teachers' perspectives (TSEP-T) and Teachers' social and emotional practices - Students' perspectives (TSEP-S) The items for these two measures were generated from Study 1 through focus group discussions with teachers, interviews with teachers and focus group discussions with students. The data from these sources obtained using Indonesian language, as were the derived items. Items were translated into English solely for discussions with my New Zealand supervisors. The initial lists based on the qualitative data yielded 204 items from the teachers' perspectives and 100 items from the students' perspectives. These data describe various teachers' social and emotional practices in the classroom. Item numbers were reduced by removing redundant items or combining identical items into one. This produced 85 items of teachers' social and emotional practices from teachers' perspectives and 82 items from students' perspectives. In general, the items were short pithy statements such as "Teacher treats students like their own children," "Teacher remains calm when facing emotional student," "Teacher gives advice to student," or "Teacher is slow to anger."

Prior to data collection, a validation panel consisting of five Indonesian primary school teachers (two males and three females) and five Indonesian primary school students (9 – 10

years old) was created for the purpose of assessing whether the items generated were understandable and reasonable. Teachers and students on the validation panel had not participated in the data collection phases of the qualitative or the quantitative study. Based on their comments, changes were made to ensure all items were written in lay and non-technical language. For example, some students mentioned that the item *"Guru tidak melakukan aktivitas lain di kelas"* (Teacher focuses only on teaching while in the class) was confusing and suggested adding an example. Thus, "*main HP, tidur"* (busy with the mobile phone, sleeping) were added into this item as illustrations of teacher's behaviour in accordance with the examples from students participating in the qualitative study.

Once refined, each item of TSEP-T and TSEP-S was printed onto a 75mmx 35mm coloured card. The items from the teachers' perspective were printed onto yellow card while the items from the students' perspective were printed onto blue card. Each item was accompanied by a unique numerical tag. To minimise the risk of losing cards, each deck was held together with a rubber band.

6.2.3 Data Collection Method

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the GOPA-sorting procedures (Bimler & Kirkland, 2003) were used in this study. The purpose of GOPA-sorting is to stimulate judgments of semantic similarities and dissimilarities between items. GOPA-sorting comprised of the following four steps (see Figure 6.1). First, participants were asked to arrange the items into groups (G) of similar behaviours. The participants were instructed to use their judgment on what similarities might unite each grouping and to sort all the cards into eight to 16 groups with no more than eight items per group. Single-item groups were permitted. The arrangement of the cards into groups was recorded. Second, the participants were asked to identify pairs which were most opposite (O). The participants were asked to find at least two sets of opposites. Third was the partition (P) phase. In this phase, the participants divided the original groups into finer subgroups using higher similarity threshold. Finally, in the addition (A) phase, the participants selected two most similar groups to create larger groups. The participants were asked to recommend at least two item groups that could merge. The group combined at each step were recorded in anonymous recording sheet.

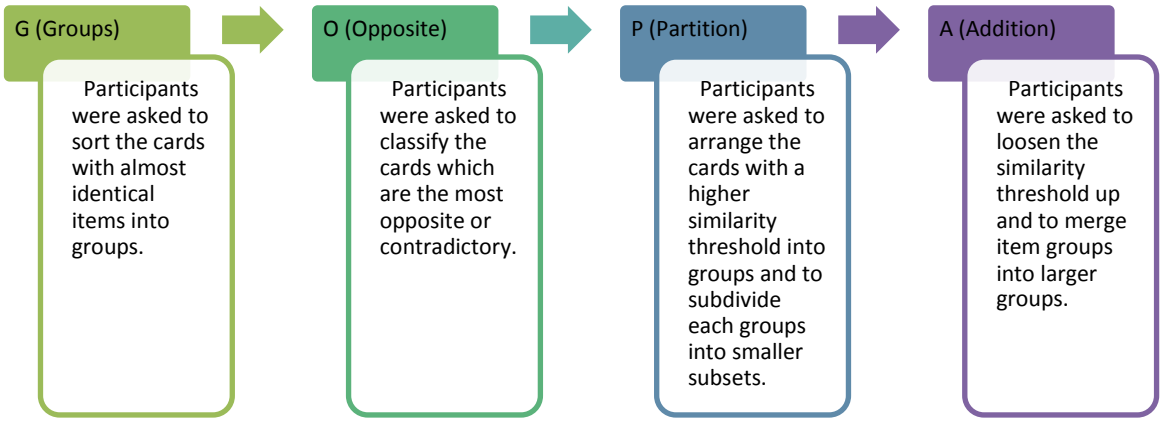

Figure 6. 1. The GOPA-Sorting Procedures

6.2.4 Data Analysis

The data from the GOPA recording sheets were entered into the Data Organiser programme (Graybill, 2009). This programme performs consistency checks to ensure items were not entered twice. Thus, this software enabled faster, simple and more reliable data entry. The data were converted into a matrix of item-pair values. The value is the fraction of the participants' grouping arrangement across GOPA's four steps. To produce a visual illustration of the data, hierarchical clustering and multidimensional scaling (MDS) were used.

Hierarchical Cluster Analysis (HCA)

Hierarchical Cluster Analysis (HCA) is a data analysis tool to represent similarity of the sorting response data. HCA can be loosely described as a way of partitioning data into non-overlapping groups or clusters. The hierarchical clustering produces a dendrogram or a tree structure which arrange the items like leaves on a tree. In this tree structure, the items were arranged into clusters and the distance between items represented their conceptual dissimilarities (Kirkland et al., 2004). The dendrogram was interpreted by looking at the closeness of items according to the length of the 'branch' joining any group of items together. The farther the connecting lines appear from the root of the dendrogram, the more conceptually distant the relationship between items or item clusters is. Items that band together are combined more often by the participants in their sort and are recognised to be conceptually related. The dendrogram has the benefit of representing how the clusters were

combined in each step of the sorting procedures by the participants (Hair, Black, & Babin, 2010).

Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)

Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) was used to convert the participants' responses in GOPA-sorting into a three-dimensional geometrical model or 'map.' In this model, each item of teachers' social and emotional behaviour became a single point, located so as to reflect the inter-items dissimilarities. The teachers' social and emotional behaviours perceived as exceedingly dissimilar appeared in a distant geographic position. Meanwhile, the similar behaviours were shown in close location.

The similarity data generated from the GOPA-sorting procedure were entered into non-metric MDS algorithms developed by Kruskal (1964). Transforming similarity values into ordinal proximity data enabled these data to be presented in the Euclidean space or an *N*-dimension real coordinate space. In the Euclidean space, each stimulus has a position on each of the dimensions. It is because the similarity values have an inverse monotonic relationship with distance, these values can be presented in the Euclidean space with their spatial proximity directly to one another equivalent to their similarity values (Kruskal & Wish, 1978). On the other hand, the bigger the similarity value between two items, the shorter the spatial distance between those items is when mapped in a Euclidean space.

MDS map interpretation consisted of identifying and naming the clusters and dimensions. Items are organised throughout the "map" to form clusters with identifiable social-emotional themes. Dimensions are exhibited as cluster pairs positioned diametrically opposite to each other in the sphere, and each cluster pair represents opposite end of the dimension's continuum. If the item set samples the conceptual domain comprehensively, their points in the map should look like a sphere with items consistently placed around the surface. Inversely, a void or "hole" would suggest the absence of an entire content area.

Map Development and Verification

The algorithms generate solutions with a range of dimensionality. As each item is situated within the model according to its dimensional coordinates, the number of dimensions established is equal to the number of axes present in the model, thus the number of coordinates any item has within this space. The dimensionality is determined by the goodness of fit or stress function (Kruskal & Wish, 1978). Stress specifies the difference between the

response proximities and the result distances in the n-dimensional map. Kruskal (1964) proposed a function that most commonly used to determine a model's goodness of fit, where the d_{ij} is the value of proximities between items i and j, while d^*_{ij} is the spatial distance between them.

$$s_1 = \sqrt{\sum_{ij} \left(d_{ij} - d^*_{ij}\right)^2 / \sum_{ij} d^2_{ij}}$$

By applying this function, the optimal number of dimensions for the model becomes obvious. By plotting stress values against dimensionality for each possible map, the ideal solution is able to be discerned as indicated by an 'elbow' on a face-value assessment called as 'elbow test' (Bimler & Kirkland, 2007). This elbow test is the counterpart of the Scree test in Factor Analysis for choosing the number of factors to retain. According to Kruskal and Wish (1978), the ideal stress for a model is 0.10 or less.

Dendrogram and Map Analyses

Subjective procedures such as 'eyeballing' are used to analyse the dendrogram and semantic map. Items proximal to one another are perceived to have similar attributes and are clustered into groups based on these similarities. Due to this similarity, clusters and dimensions were classified according to the underlying shared characteristics proximal items possess. Analysis for both dendrogram and semantic map is by cluster analysis, with semantic map analysis also including neighbourhood and dimensional analyses.

The next step was to name each cluster, pole and dimension according to its underlying theme or concept. The name of these clusters, poles and dimensions was consulted to an advisory panel of five Indonesian educational psychologists. Each individual in the panel was given a list of items via email, then each member of the advisory panel suggested names for the clusters, poles and dimensions. These suggestions were taken into consideration to determine their final names.

6.3 Results

6.3.1 Hierarchical Cluster Analysis (HCA)

HCA result for Teachers' Social and Emotional Practices - Teachers' perspectives (TSEP-T)

Nine clusters were identified through the HCA. These were Behaviour Management, Effective Teaching, Guiding Relationships, Relationship Building, Teachers' Positive Attribute, Social-Emotional Support, Emotion Regulation, Religiosity and Social-emotional Acceptance. Each of the clusters is explained in more detail in Table 6.1. The dendrogram solution with labels for each cluster is shown in Appendix D1.Table 6. 1.

Clusters - TSEP-T

No	Cluster name	Number of items	Theme
1.	Behaviour Management	7	Teacher's characteristics and actions in order to make rules and set limits in the classroom
2.	Effective Teaching	5	Teacher's attempt to create effective learning situations
3.	Guiding Relationships	10	Positive relationships and norms to create positive classroom climate
4.	Relationship Building	12	Teacher's attempt to establish close bonds with his/her students
5.	Teachers' Positive Attribute	7	Personal characteristics of a teacher that might be beneficial for students' learning
6.	Social-emotional Support	14	Teacher's efforts to support students in their academic and non-academic areas
7.	Emotion Regulation	11	Teacher's emotion regulation strategies to manage his/her own emotions
8.	Religiosity	7	The role of faith in a teacher's job
9.	Social-emotional Acceptance	12	Teacher's endeavour to build an emotional connection with each student

HCA result for Teachers' Social and Emotional Practices - Students' Perspectives (TSEP-S)

Seven clusters were identified through HCA. These were *Prioritising Learning, Relationship Building, Motivation and Reinforcement-focused, Caring, Guiding Relationships, Teachers' Positive Attribute* and *Behaviour Management* Each of the clusters are explained in more detail in Table 6.2. The dendrogram solution with labels for each cluster is shown in Appendix D2.

Table 6. 2.

Clusters - TSEP-S

No	Cluster name	Number of items	Theme
1.	Prioritising Learning	11	Teacher's strategies to support students' learning
2.	Relationship Building	5	Teacher's behaviours to build a close relationship with students and the impact of that relationship for students
3.	Motivation and Reinforcement-focused	10	Teacher's attempt to give motivation and reinforcement to students in their academic and non-academic areas
4.	Caring	15	Teacher's attitude to show caring to each individual student
5.	Guiding Relationships	14	The value of positive peer interaction and classroom climate; included students' personal aspects and also student-student relationships
6.	Teachers' Positive Attribute	13	Teacher's personal traits that support students' learning
7.	Behaviour Management	14	Teacher's strategies to set boundaries in the classroom and to guide students' behaviours

6.3.2 Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)

Teachers' Social and Emotional Practices - Teachers' Perspectives (TSEP-T) map interpretation

Map interpretation incorporated the identification and naming of meaningful groupings (clusters) and orderings (dimensions) of items (Davison & Skay, 1991). When the item points on the multidimensional scaling solution were coloured according to dendrogram clusters, this revealed that they were largely grouped in the same way in the multidimensional scaling map. That is, items positioned in the same dendrogram cluster were also in close proximity to one another in the map, which further represented the presence of underlying themes.

As shown below, Figure 6.2 displays a complementing hemispheric view of the distribution of items in the TSEP-T solution. Visualise northern and southern hemispheres of a globe being mapped as circles, centred respectively on the North and South Poles. The 30-degrees and 60-degrees lines of latitude become concentric circles, with 90-degrees latitude (the pole itself) in the centre. The equator at 0-degrees becomes the outmost circle of both hemispheres. In these

graphs, I measure ‘degrees of latitude’ outward from the pole (centre of each hemisphere) to the outmost circle (the ‘equator’).

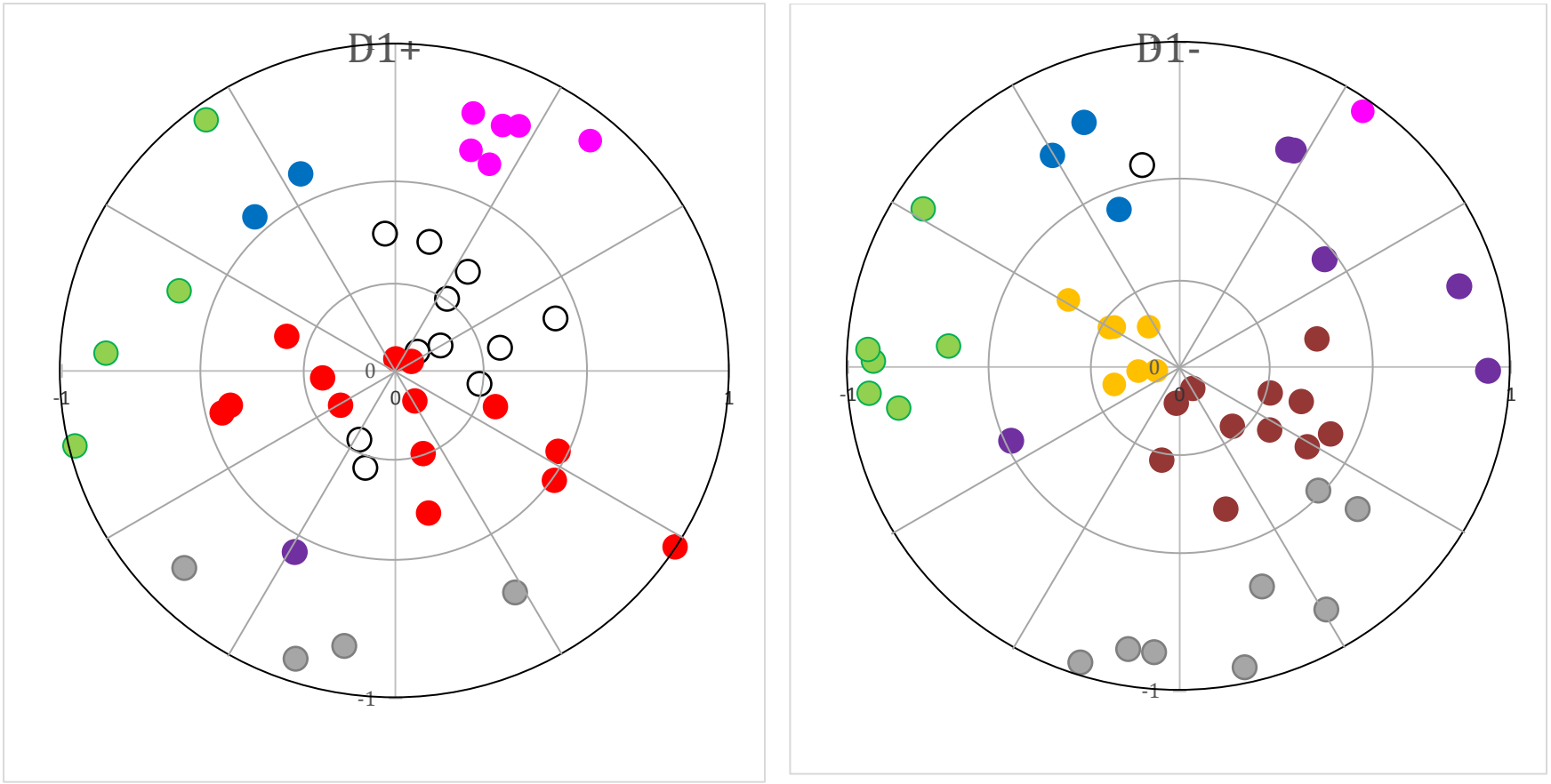

Figure 6. 2. D+ and D- hemispheric views displaying item placement and poles in the TSEP-T model
Note:
Purple = Behaviour management, White = Relationship-building, Brown = Emotion regulation, Blue = Effective teaching, Pink = Teachers' positive attribute, Yellow = Religiosity, Green = Guiding relationships, Red = Social-emotional support, Grey = Social-emotional acceptance

Cluster

The TSEP-T items comprised in each cluster are summarised in Table 6.3 below. Gross item grouping was primarily informed by HCA followed by more specific item assignment after 'eyeballing' the combined map. The clusters' labels resulted from a qualitative aggregation of the underlying themes pertaining to the items they encompass.

Table 6. 3.

Cluster names and themes (TSEP-T)

No	Cluster name	Cluster theme
1.	Interpersonal guidelines	Teacher uses appropriate discipline to manage student-student relationships
2.	Sensitivity to timing/context	Teacher shows waiting attitude to respond students' behaviour
3.	Pedagogical strategies to promote learning	Teacher uses pedagogical strategies to motivate students to engage with learning
4.	Supporting students' social-emotional development	Teacher shows encouragement to develop students' social-emotional skills
5.	Valuing teaching	Teacher loves and enjoys their work
6.	Encouragement	Teacher encourages students to maintain positive behaviours
7.	Going beyond	Teacher displays attentions to students more than their obligation
8.	Teacher-student connection	Teacher interacts positively with students to create a close teacher-student relationship
9.	Openness	Teacher shows openness to establish effective interpersonal relationships
10.	Warmth	Teacher shows attention and warmth to students
11.	Affection	Teacher displays affection to students
12.	Helping	Teacher helps students to solve the problem
13.	Reward focused	Teacher rewards students' achievement and positive behaviour
14.	Personal generosity	Teacher shows kindness to students
15.	Emotional philosophy	Teacher's personal values that support their profession
16.	Emotion regulation	Teacher regulates their own emotions in a way that influence students' emotions
17.	Religious coping strategies	Teacher uses religious coping strategies in emotional situations
18.	Religious understanding of work	Religious teaching that influence teacher's belief about their profession
19.	Focus on students as individuals	Teacher displays concern to each student in order to support their learning and establish trusting relationship
20.	Emotional acceptance and availability	Teacher shows acceptance to students and spends time to talk with students
21.	Trust	Teacher believes in students

Dimensions

Each dimension represents an underlying attribute and contains two poles (Harvey et al., 2012). An item is located along a dimension according to its degree of similarity to this attribute. Three underlying dimensions of teachers' social-emotional practices were identified. Dimensions manifest as cluster pairs positioned diametrically opposite to one another in the sphere, and each cluster pair is seen to represent opposite ends of the dimension's continuum. The three underlying dimensions identified in this map were *Socio-cultural expectancy and communication, Relationship* and *Teaching Values* (shown in Table 6.4). Each of these dimensions is divided into two categories to represent items nearing closer to one of the two poles. *Socio-cultural expectancy and communication* are distinguished as either *verbal-direct instruction* or *sensitivity to timing/context. Relationship* is differentiated as either *vertical relationship (with God)* or *horizontal relationship (with people). Teaching values* is ascertained as either *valuing teaching* or *valuing student.*

Table 6. 4.

TSEP-T dimensions

Dimensions	**Poles**	**Polar Meanings**
D1: Socio-cultural expectancy and communication	+	Verbal-direct instruction
	-	Sensitivity to timing/context
D2: Relationship	+	Vertical relationship (with God)
	-	Horizontal relationships (with people)
D3: Teaching values	+	Valuing teaching
	-	Valuing students

The first dimension identified was *Socio-cultural expectancy and communication.* Items on this dimension describe teachers' sensitivity and strategies to communicate with students and range from giving straightforward instruction *(Verbal-direct instruction; e.g. Teacher encourages students to talk politely*), to waiting attitude (*Sensitivity to timing/context; e.g. Teacher waits for the right time for reprimanding/telling students*).

The second dimension refers to *Relationship.* At one end of the dimension is *Vertical relationship (with God)* and at the opposite end is *Horizontal relationship (with people).* Along this dimension are teachers' horizontal and vertical relations, where *Vertical relationship (with God)* relates to religious belief *(e.g. Teacher believes that by treating students well, he/she will*

get rewards from God) and *Horizontal relationship (with persons)* focuses on teachers' relationships with their students *(e.g. Teacher visits students' house).*

The third dimension pertains to *Teaching values.* At one end of the dimension is *Valuing teaching* and at the opposite end is *Valuing students*. Items along this dimension describe teachers' attitudes associated with teaching and range from teachers' passion about teaching *(Valuing teaching; e.g. Working with students makes teacher happy)* to teachers' attention to students' conditions and needs (*Valuing students; e.g. Teacher understands personality of each student).*

Teachers' Social and Emotional Practices - Students' Perspectives (TSEP-S) map interpretation

Figure 6. 3 displays a complementing hemispheric view of the distribution of items in the TSEP-S solution.

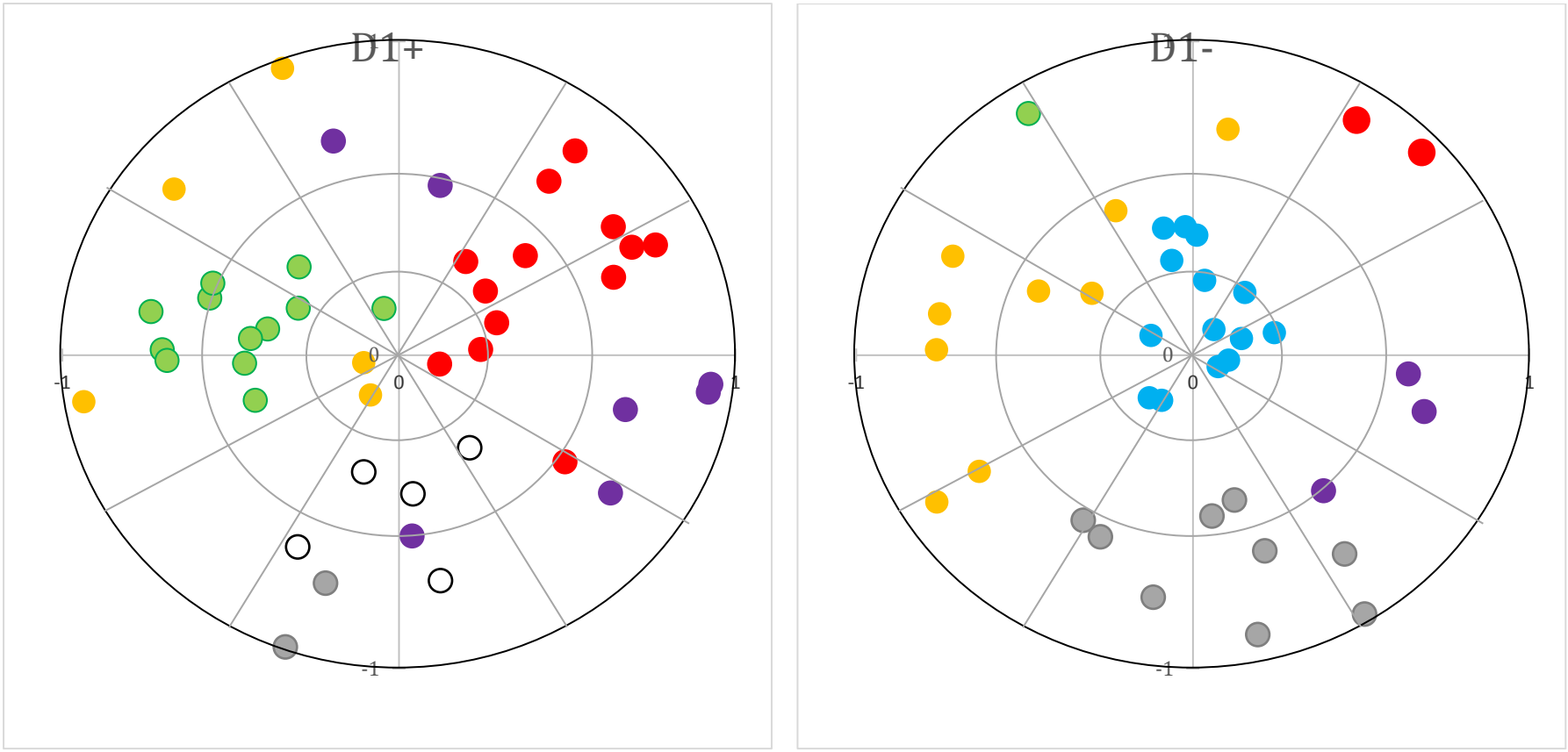

Figure 6.3. D+ and D- hemispheric views displaying item placement and poles in the TSEP-T model
Note:
Grey = Prioritising learning, Red = Caring, Yellow = Behaviour management, White = Relationship building, Blue = Guiding relationships, Purple = Motivation and reinforcement-focused, Green = Teachers' positive attribute

Cluster

The TSEP-S items are organised throughout the map and created clusters with identifiable social-emotional themes (see Table 6.5).

Table 6. 5.

Cluster names and themes (TSEP-S)

No	Cluster name	Item
1.	Pedagogical strategies to promote learning	Teacher uses pedagogical strategies to motivate students to engage with learning
2.	Supporting collaboration	Teacher facilitates student-student relationships and cooperation
3.	Responsiveness to students' emotion in learning	Teacher cares about and takes time to attend to students' emotional needs
4.	Teacher-student communication	Teacher communicates effectively with students to establish strong connection
5.	Familiarity	Teachers display friendliness to students
6.	Study encouragement	Teacher gives encouragement to support students' learning
7.	Fostering peer support	Teacher encourages student-student support to develop a strong learning community
8.	Supporting students' social-emotional development	Teacher promotes appropriate social-emotional behaviours to establish a positive climate
9.	Openness	Teacher shows openness to establish effective interpersonal relationships
10.	Motivation	Teacher motivates students to support their development
11.	Reinforcement focused	Teacher reinforces students' achievement and positive behaviour
12.	Personal generosity	Teacher shows kindness to students
13.	Emotional availability	Teacher recognise students' feelings and spends time to talk with students
14.	Attention to sick student	Teacher displays attention to sick student
15.	Integrity	Teacher shows strong principle that support their work
16.	Patience	Teacher shows patience
17.	Affection	Teacher cares about their students
18.	Gentleness	Teacher shows gentleness
19.	Setting boundaries	Teacher uses appropriate strategies to manage student behaviour to maintain a positive climate
20.	Acceptance and forgiveness	Teacher accepts student's mistake and forgives students
21.	Behaviour management	Teacher uses appropriate discipline to manage students' behaviours
22.	Personable	Teacher exhibits pleasing personality that make them an effective teacher
23.	Fairness	Teacher treats students impartially
24.	Equitable	Teacher responds to students' behaviours objectively

Dimensions

The three dimensions were labelled: *Behaviour management, Intervening students* and *Relationship* (shown in Table 6.6). The first dimension, *behaviour management*, refers to whether the teacher practices *reinforcement focused* or *student autonomy* to manage students' behaviour. The second dimension, *supporting students,* is distinguished as either the teacher is *supporting students' academic learning* or *supporting students in an emotional situation.* Finally, the last dimension, *relationship,* refers to whether the teacher encourages *student-student relationship* or *teacher-student relationship.*

Table 6. 6.

TSEP-S Dimensions

Dimensions	**Poles**	**Polar Meanings**
D1: Behaviour management	+	Reinforcement focused
	-	Student autonomy
D2: Supporting students	+	Supporting students' academic learning
	-	Supporting students in an emotional situation
D3: Relationships	+	Student-student relationships
	-	Teacher-student relationships

The first dimension is *Behaviour management.* At one end of the dimension is *Reinforcement focused* and at the opposite end is *Student autonomy*. Along this dimension are teachers' approach to regulate students' behaviours, where *Reinforcement focused* relates to teachers' effort to support students' behaviours with praise *(e.g. Teacher compliments students who have achieved)* and *Student autonomy* focuses on teachers' trust to their students that they can manage their own selves (*e.g. Teacher does not threaten).*

The theme of the second dimension is *Supporting students.* At one end of the dimension is *Supporting students' academic learning* and at the opposite end is *Supporting students' emotional situation.* Items along this dimension describe teachers' attempt to support students' learning *(Supporting students' academic learning; e.g. Teacher is willing to teach the students until they understand)* to teachers' interference to emotional situation (*Supporting students in an emotional situation; e.g. Teacher defends student who is treated badly by his/her friend).*

The third dimension identified was labelled *Relationships.* The *Student-student relationships* is diametrically opposite to *Teacher-student relationships*. Items on this dimension describe the teachers' effort to develop positive relationships in the classroom setting that range from relationship between students *(Student-student relationship; e.g. Teacher encourages students to help their friend in need*), to relationship between teacher and student (*Teacher-student relationship; e.g. Teacher's face shows that he/she cares*).

6.4 Discussion

The purpose of this study was to create a stable map specifying the teachers' social-emotional practices and organising these into a stable structure. This study identified how the items relate to each other in terms of conceptual similarity and developed a compendium of social-emotional practice to be used for measurement purposes. Results of this study indicated that items were successfully able to be organised into a stable map according to conceptual similarity.

6.4.1 Clusters

Using the HCA approach, the dendrogram showed nine preliminary clusters for Teacher Social-Emotional Practices from Teachers' perspectives (TSEP-T) and seven preliminary clusters for Teacher Social-Emotional Practices from Students' perspectives (TSEP-S). While using MDS approach, 85 items of TSEP-T were organised into 21 clusters and 82 items of TSEP-S were organised into 24 clusters. Clusters revealed from HCA and MDS approaches show that teachers' social-emotional practices exist in Indonesian primary classrooms and these are expressed in a variety of ways (see Table 6.7).

Regarding the overlap between methodology, comparisons were possible between clusters identified in this study and clusters discerned in Harvey et al.'s (2012), Chia's (2014), Han's (2016), and Edwards' (2018) studies. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the purpose of these four studies was to explore the underlying structure of teachers' social-emotional practice and they all use the same quantitative methods. Harvey et al.'s (2012) study was conducted with New Zealand university students, while Edwards, Harvey, and Bimler's (2018) study was conducted with New Zealand secondary school students and Asian students enrolled in an ESOL course. Chia's (2014) study involved adult polytechnic students in Singapore and Han's (2016) study

involved Korean middle-school students. Clusters were compared principally by item composition, with grouping labels guiding initial comparisons.

Table 6. 7.

Comparison of dendogram and MDS themes

Global themes	Dendrogram		Multidimensional scaling map	
	TSEP-T	TSEP-S	TSEP-T	TSEP-S
Religiosity	Religiosity		Religious understanding of work; Religious coping strategies	
Belief			Emotional philosophy, Valuing teaching	
Support	Social-emotional support	Caring; Motivation and reinforcement focused	Sensitivity to timing/context; Supporting students' social-emotional development; Going beyond; Helping; Reward focused; Personal generosity; Affection; Encouragement	Reinforcement focused; Attention to a sick student; Personal generosity; Affection; Gentleness; Patience; Responsiveness to students' emotion in learning; Motivation
Behaviour management	Behaviour management; Guiding relationships	Behaviour management; Guiding relationships	Interpersonal guidelines	Behaviour management; Setting boundaries; Fostering peer support; Supporting collaboration; Supporting students' social-emotional development
Teaching strategies	Effective teaching	Prioritising learning	Pedagogical strategies to promote learning	Pedagogical strategies to promote learning; Study encouragement
Teachers' positive attribute	Teachers' positive attribute	Teachers' positive attribute; Relationship building	Openness; Warmth; Trust	Familiarity; Openness; Integrity; Personable; Fairness; Equitable
Emotion regulation	Emotion regulation		Emotion regulation	
Relationship building	Relationship building; Social-emotional acceptance	Relationship building	Teacher-student connection; Focus on students as individuals; Emotional acceptance and availability	Teacher-student communication; Emotional availability; Acceptance and forgiveness

As displayed in Table 6.8, there was a general overlap of key cluster themes between this present study and Harvey et al.'s (2012), Chia's (2014), Han's (2016), and Edwards' (2018) studies. Three key cluster themes, i.e. philosophy/attitude, relationship-building and interpersonal guidelines/boundaries remain thematically similar across this study and Harvey's, Chia's, Han's and Edward's studies. It can therefore be suggested that teachers' social-emotional practices comprising philosophy/attitude, relationship-building and interpersonal guidelines/boundaries have been meaningfully organised. Moreover, this observation indicates that the anchoring methodology used during the GOPA procedure was well-founded and supports the overall stability of the model recognised during Study 2.

Two clusters, emotional contagion and emotional coaching were found in Harvey et al.'s, Chia's, Han's, and Edwards' studies but were not identified in this present study. This result may be explained by the circumstance that Harvey et al.'s, Chia's, Han's, and Edwards' studies used similar instrument to each other. In addition, unique variations in the clusters were found across the studies. For example, in contrast with Harvey et al.'s, Chia's, Han's, and Edwards' studies, Study 2 identified *Religious understanding of work* in "emotion regulation" key theme. It is important to keep in mind that Study 2 used different items and instrument from other studies. The items of the first instrument (TSEP-T) were informed by photo-elicitation interviews, focus group discussions and individual interviews with teachers, while the items of the second instrument (TSEP-S) were informed by focus group discussions with students. Thus, the items used in Study 2 were contextualised in an Indonesian setting in which religion and education are not separated.

Overall, most item groupings of Study 2 contained far fewer items than the clusters of Harvey et al.'s (2012), Chia's (2014), Han's (2016), and Edwards et al.'s (2018) studies. Accordingly, larger clusters were easier to compare while smaller clusters are less easy to compare. This factor largely contributed to the overlapping of many item groupings to a single cluster of Harvey et al.'s, Chia's, Han's, and Edwards et al.'s studies. In addition, the fewer items in each cluster provide an overall clearer theme.

Table 6. 8.

Comparison of item groupings between studies

Key theme	Study 2		Harvey et al., (2012)	Chia (2014)	Han (2016)	Edwards et al., (2018)	
	TSEP-T	TSEP-S				NZ Sample	ESOL Sample
Philosophy/ attitude	Emotional philosophy Valuing teaching Religious understanding of work		Emotional philosophy Emotional attitude	Emotional attitude	Attitude to teaching		Positive engagement with the teaching role
Relationship-building	Teacher-student connection Focus on students as individuals	Teacher-student communication Supporting collaboration	Emotional relationship	Teacher-student relationship Student-student support	Relationship-building Fostering supportive relationships/ environment	Warm & caring teacher-student relationship Develops strong classroom community	Warm, caring & attentive teacher-student relationship Strong reciprocities within the classroom community Develops strong classroom community
Teachers' characteristics	Openness Warmth Affection Trust	Familiarity Openness Patience Integrity Affection Gentleness Acceptance and forgiveness Personable Fairness Equitable		Teacher emotional characteristics Relationship forming behaviours/warmth		Positive personal qualities of teacher	Positive personal qualities of teacher

(continued)

Table 6. 8. (continued)

Comparison of item groupings between studies

Key theme	Study 2		Harvey et al., (2012)	Chia (2014)	Han (2016)	Edwards et al., (2018)	
	TSEP-T	TSEP-S				NZ Sample	ESOL Sample
Emotional awareness and support	Emotional acceptance and availability Sensitivity to timing/context Supporting students' social-emotional development Encouragement Going beyond Helping Reward focused Personal generosity	Emotional acceptance and availability Study encouragement Motivation Reinforcement focused Supporting students' social-emotional development Personal generosity Attention to sick student	Emotional awareness			Attentive to students' emotions and needs	
Interpersonal guidelines/ boundaries	Interpersonal guidelines	Behaviour management Setting boundaries Fostering peer support	Interpersonal guidelines	Emotional boundaries	Classroom management	Positive boundaries & classroom management	
Emotion regulation	Emotion regulation Religious coping strategies		Emotional regulation Emotional self-acceptance			Teacher's own emotion regulation	Emotion management (own and classroom)

(continued)

Table 6. 8. (continued)

Comparison of item groupings between studies

Key theme	Study 2		Harvey et al., (2012)	Chia (2014)	Han (2016)	Edwards et al., (2018)	
	TSEP-T	TSEP-S				NZ Sample	ESOL Sample
Teaching strategies	Pedagogical strategies to promote learning	Pedagogical strategies to promote learning Responsiveness to students' emotion in learning		Academic preparation/provides necessary support		Pedagogical strategies to promote learning	Pedagogical strategies to promote learning
Emotion contagion			Emotion contagion	Emotion contagion	Emotion contagion	Impact of teacher on sense of self	
Emotional coaching			Emotional coaching	Emotional coaching	Emotional coaching	Emotional coaching	Emotional coaching

6.4.2 Dimensions

The above results suggest that relatively few dimensions are underlying the organisation of teachers' social-emotional practices. Three dimensions emerged from TSEP-T, namely: *Socio-cultural expectancy and communication, Relationship* and *Teaching Values.* While the three dimensions emerging within the TSEP-S are *Behaviour management, Supporting students* and *Relationship.*

The first dimension of the TSEP-T, *Socio-cultural expectancy and communication* (TD1), is thought to link *Verbal-direct instruction* (TD1+) and *Sensitivity to timing/context* (TD1-). This finding suggests that participants classified teachers' social-emotional practises according to the right time when the teachers could instruct the students directly as well as their waiting attitude.

The second dimension of the TSEP-T, *Relationship* (TD2), is a prominent theme linking *Vertical relationship (with God)* (TD2+) with *Horizontal relationship (with people)* (TD2-). This finding implies that participants' cognitively organised teachers' social-emotional skills on the basis of teachers' connection, either religious or social.

Lastly, the third dimension of the TSEP-T, *Teaching value* (TD3), links *Valuing teaching* (D3+) and *Valuing students* (TD3-). This finding indicates that participants classified teachers' social-emotional practices according to each item's perceived teaching belief. In other words, this dimension points to the difference between how teachers focused on their profession and how teachers focused to their students.

The first dimension of the TSEP-S, *Behaviour management* (SD1), suggests that individuals structure items according to teachers' strategy to manage students' behaviours. At one extreme, items reflect how teachers reinforce students with praise and compliment (SD1+), while at the other extreme, items reflect how teachers give freedom to students to manage themselves (SD1-). This finding implies that participants cognitively organised teachers' social-emotional skills on their strategies to manage students' behaviour, either by providing students' autonomy to regulate their own behaviour or by giving praise and compliment.

The second dimension of the TSEP-S, *Supporting students* (SD2), suggests that items are classified according to the type of situation that requires teachers' involvement. This dimension is thought to link *Supporting students' academic learning* (TD2+) and *Supporting*

students in an emotional situation (SD2-). This finding suggests that participants organised teachers' social-emotional practices according to teachers' support to their students, either in their academic or emotional development.

The last dimension of the TSEP-S, *Relationships* (SD3), links *Student-student relationships* (SD3+) and *Teacher-student relationships* (SD3-). The implication from this finding is that participants classified teachers' social-emotional practices based on teachers' attempt to develop positive relationships between students, as well as between teacher and students.

Table 6.9 shows similarity and dissimilarity between Study 2 and previous studies about teachers' social-emotional practice dimensions. Relationship and behaviour or emotion management themes appeared across all five studies. Nonetheless, dimension and pole variance were also found across these studies. For example, previous studies found emotion contagion as a pole, but in Study 2, this was not identified. Study 2 also identified teachers' relationship with God as a social-emotional practice, a practice not detected in comparative studies. Even though relationship was found as a pole in the other four studies, these relationships were teacher-student relationships or student-student relationships. In Study 2, relationship was expanded to a vertical relationship with God.

These differences may be explained by the dissimilar instruments used across the five studies. Harvey et al., Chia, Han and Edwards used similar measures developed by Harvey and Evans (2003). Harvey and Evans developed the items based on their research with New Zealand teachers in mainstream school where religion is separated from state education. On the other hand, Study 2 used items which had been developed from Study 1 in Yogyakarta, Indonesia where religion is not separated from education. This emic or inside perspective framework used in Study 2 generated items that focussed on the intrinsic cultural distinctions that are meaningful for teachers and students who are the members of given society. This factor may explain the dimensions and poles differences between Study 2 and the other four studies. However, it is important to remember that integrating axes into MDS models does not affect the positioning of items in any way. Dimensions were situated in each solution at the decision of each research team as to improve the viewer's understanding of the positioning of item relative to one another (Harvey et al., 2012; Marwick, 2016; Rosenblatt, 2013).

Table 6. 9.

Comparison of dimensions and poles between studies

Study 2 – TSEP-T	**Study 2 – TSEP-S**	**Harvey et al., (2012)**	**Chia (2014)**	**Han (2016)**	**Edwards (2018)**
Socio-cultural expectancy and communication (Verbal-direct instruction to sensitivity timing/context)	Behaviour management (reinforcement focused to student autonomy)	Teachers' emotional interpersonal guidelines to emotional awareness	Emotional management (emotion coaching to emotional attitude)	Emotion management (attitude to teaching to emotion coaching)	Emotional practices and qualities (emotion coaching to positive personal qualities of teacher
Teaching Values (valuing teaching to valuing students)	Supporting students (supporting students' academic learning to supporting students in an emotional situation)	Emotion contagion to emotion coaching	Teacher's emotional influence (student-student support to teacher emotion contagion)	Emotional influence (emotion contagion to foster supportive relationships/environment)	Emotional influence (creates learning community and fosters independence to emotional reciprocities)
Relationship (Vertical relationship [with God] to horizontal relationship [with people])	Relationship (teacher-student relationship to student-student relationship)	Emotion regulation to emotional relationship	Teacher-student interaction (emotional boundaries to teacher-student relationship).	Student-teacher interactions (relationship-building to classroom management).	Teacher-student interactions (Attentive to students' emotions and needs to positive boundaries & classroom management)

6.4.3 Link to Extant Literature

The maps generated by the participants provide a unifying framework of teachers' social-emotional practices. *Emotional philosophy* is virtually analogous to Hargreaves' (1998) notion that effective teachers hold beliefs about the centrality of emotions to their teaching practice. According to Hargreaves, a good teacher needs to emotionally connect with their students and care for their wellbeing and learning. Furthermore, *Teacher-student connection* and *Teacher-students communication* have routinely been published as important aspects to support students' motivation, connection to school, academic performance and wellbeing (Fredriksen & Rhodes, 2004; Gehlbach et al., 2016; Hagenauer, Hascher, & Volet, 2015; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004; Roorda, Koomen, Spilt, & Oort, 2011). For instance, Fredriksen and Rhodes (2004) argue that teachers play a significant role in shaping their relationships with students through their emotional connection and responsiveness to students' needs. Similarly, Hagenauer et al., (2015) concluded that teachers' social and emotional abilities to form these connections with their students is vital to create a warm and nurturing learning environment in the classroom.

Interpersonal guidelines, Behaviour management and *Setting boundaries* each have elements considered important to manage students' behaviours through clear guidelines, limits and boundaries. These results are also consistent with previous studies (e.g. Little, 2005; Little & Hudson, 1998; Thompson, 2009) all of which found that managing students' behaviours is vital to ensuring positive classroom order and enhancing students' wellbeing and achievement. Students feel safe if they are provided with these clear guidelines and boundaries (I.M. Evans & Harvey, 2012). *Emotion regulation* confirms the findings that teachers' emotion management is important to develop a warm relationship with their students and to reach their learning goals (Sutton & Harper, 2009; Sutton, Mudrey-Camino, & Knight, 2009).

The relationship between items appears to transcend theoretical perspectives, facilitating new links between them. For instance, the clusters comprising teachers' personal characteristics such as *Openness, Warmth, Affection, Patience, Gentleness* and *Fairness* (Klassen et al., 2018; Koski-Heikkinen et al., 2014; Läänemets et al., 2012; Walls et al., 2002), along with their professional *Pedagogical strategies to promote learning* (Allington, 2002; Beishuizen et al., 2001; Langer, 2001; Liu & Meng, 2009) can be linked to research regarding the nature of effective teaching. Teacher effectiveness is a result of the interaction between these personal

and professional factors (Cheung et al., 2004; Koutrouba, 2012). Koutrouba (2012) specifically highlights the link between teachers' abilities to establish innovative pedagogical practices with their personal abilities to be communicative, friendly, open-minded, tactful, supportive and humorous.

Furthermore, several of the TSEP-T and TSEP-S solutions' clusters show congruence with Jennings and Greenberg's (2009) concept of teachers' social-emotional skills. Of their five aspects of teachers' social and emotional competency, three show overlap with key cluster themes from Study 2. Jennings and Greenberg's social awareness aspect is best captured by the key cluster theme *Emotional awareness and support* which include some clusters like *Emotional acceptance and availability, Responsiveness to students' emotion in learning* and *Study encouragement*. The *Emotion regulation* cluster is analogous to self-management aspect, while *Teacher-student connection* and *Teacher-student communication* clusters are in line with relationship management aspect. These findings indicate that participants of Study 2 grouped items in a meaningful way thus supporting the validity of the TSEP-T and TSEP-S solutions.

6.4.4 Overcoming Limitations of Study 2

Given the relatively small sample size (n = 38 for TSEP-T and n = 34 for TSEP-S) and lack of demographic diversity, the findings of Study 2 have limited generalizability even within an Indonesian context because there are 34 provinces with more than 100 ethnic groups. Replicating this study's procedure with varying demographic groups and comparing the results with those generated in previous studies is one direction for future research to take to clarify the applicability of my findings.

The second limitation is the way participants made decision about grouping the items. During a GOPA sorting procedure, participants engaged in a variety of mental processes to differentiate similarities and dissimilarities between items. Obviously, judgements made based on underlying themes of items will have a greater value than those based on superficial item content. Nonetheless, while we cannot empirically justify the level of cognitive consideration employed by the participants for each pair of item, a close inspection of the TSEP-T or TSEP-S dendrograms reveal certain semantic and linguistic connections between some items in the clusters. For example, most items comprising *Guiding Relationships* cluster referenced the word 'encourages' - a likely reason why these clusters were identified as similar by dendrogram positioning within the TSEP-T and TSEP-S solutions. The Partitioning and Addition phases of the GOPA procedure are intended to increase participant cognitive

consideration thus mitigating this potential limitation. Nonetheless, it is recommended that these items be reviewed in future iterations to determine whether they carry a different specificity or kind of description than most items. Possible rewording or disentangling of the item may improve map quality.

The final limitation is related to subjective procedures such as 'eyeballing' are used to analyse the dendrogram formed via HCA and semantic map formed via MDS. 'Eyeballing' is a qualitative technique informed by quantitative methods which has been used in a number of similar MDS studies (Harvey et al., 2012; Chia, 2014; Han, 2016; Marwick, 2017). Particularly, it regards the semantic comparison of proximal items as to decide cluster inclusion or exclusion fitness. This procedure can be regarded as a limitation because the interpretations may be confounded by researcher bias. However, in consultation with the aforementioned advisory panel on the feasibility of cluster composition, this bias was minimised. In addition, as the next phase of this study, Study 3 employs statistical procedures that acquire item-groupings from teachers' and students' responses. The comparison between 'eyeballing' judgements from Study 2 and the statistically acquired factors from the latter study further mitigates this limitation.

6.5 Summary

These quantitative findings are significant as they suggest a stable cognitive organisation of teachers' social-emotional practices among Indonesian population. Overlap was generally observed between the clusters and the literature, suggesting that teachers' social-emotional practices' grouping are meaningful, as well as validating the TSEP-T and TSEP-S solutions. These solutions provide new insights into how Indonesian general sample cognitively organise teachers' social-emotional practices. Although the integrity of this study was not compromised, limitations included researcher bias on cluster determination, superficial sorting criteria influencing item grouping, the lack of demographic diversity affecting the generalizability of the findings.

Overall, Study 2 has established a stable map specifying Indonesian teachers' social-emotional behaviours that responds to the second research question previously mentioned about the systematic structure of Indonesian teachers' social and emotional behaviours. Findings from Study 2 support the importance of teachers' social-emotional practices and their coherent structure. However, Study 2 did not identify *which* teachers' social-emotional practices were

predominantly used by teachers and observed by students, nor did it reveal any individual variation in the delivery of these practices. Furthermore, this study did not investigate the impact of these teaching practices on teacher-student relationship and students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing. Thus, Study 3 aims to evaluate and to profile teachers' individual or idiosyncratic social-emotional practices using the map as the basis of further analysis. This further study is also required to explore the association between teachers' social-emotional practices and teacher-student relationships, students' connectedness and wellbeing. These two objectives are achieved in Study 3, reported in Chapter Seven.

Chapter Seven

Study 3: Identifying Principle Social-Emotional Practices and Teaching Style

7.1 Introduction

Findings from Study 1 and 2 generally support the notion that teachers' social-emotional behaviours occur on the learning practice. However, as there have been minimal continuity among studies in this field, valid, reliable and generalizable teacher styles remain relatively unclear. The final study of this overall project aims to use the Study 2 combined solutions as objective lens for interpreting teachers' and students' subjective responses. Specifically, Study 3 was designed to empirically reduce the total item pool to several core themes (also known as factors), to profile teachers based on patterns of responding across these factors and to aggregate similar ideographic teacher profiles into common social-emotional styles. In addition, Study 3 was also designed to establish the association between teachers' social-emotional practices and student-teacher relationship, students' sense of school connectedness and wellbeing.

This chapter begins by considering the methods used in this phase (Section 7.2). The teachers' social-emotional practices factors and styles obtained from the statistical analysis then follows (Section 7.3). The correlation between teachers' social-emotional practices and student-teacher relationship, students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing is described (Section 7.4, Section 7.5 and Section 7.6), followed by a discussion of the findings (Section 7.7).

7.2 Method

7.2.1 Participants

Nineteen public primary schools from 14 sub-districts in the Yogyakarta City District, Indonesia, which had not participated in Study 1 were randomly selected from a total of 90 public primary schools. The school principals were contacted to seek permission to invite the teachers and students to participate in Study 3 (see Appendix C14). With the consent of the school principal (see Appendix C15), an Information Sheet was distributed to Year 4, 5 and 6 teachers within each school (see Appendix C16). After receiving sufficient written and verbal

information regarding the research, teachers who were willing to participate signed the study Consent Form (see Appendix C17). In total, 90 teachers, consisting of 28 males and 62 females, agreed to participate in this research. Table 7.1 displays a summary of teacher participants' demographic information.

Table 7. 1.

Characteristics of teachers who participated in the study (n=90)

Characteristic	**n**	**%**
Gender		
Female	62	68.9%
Male	28	31.1%
Age		
21 – 30	13	14%
31 – 40	4	5%
41 – 50	33	37%
51 - 60	40	44%
Education		
2 Years Diploma	7	7.8%
3 Years Diploma	1	1.1%
Undergraduate	79	87.8%
Master	3	3.3%
Teaching experience		
≤ 5 years	10	11%
6 – 15 years	17	19%
≥ 16 years	63	70%
Ethnic group		
Java	89	99%
Ambon	1	1%
Religion		
Islam	77	86%
Catholic	11	12%
Protestant	2	2%

After written informed consents from the appropriate teachers were obtained, meetings with students in the teacher participants' classroom were conducted. The purpose of these meetings was to provide information about the study and then to seek volunteers to participate in the research. A child-friendly pamphlet (see Appendix C18) and a Consent Form (see Appendix C19) were given to the students. An Information Sheet (see Appendix C20) and Consent Form for parents (see Appendix C21) were also distributed to students to take home. Students were asked to give this to their parents and return the signed Consent Form in a sealed envelope to the teacher within three days. Only students who gave their consent and whose parents' consented were chosen to participate in Study 3, amounting to 333 students

from 54 classrooms participating in this research. Table 7.2 displays a summary of student participants' demographic information.

Table 7. 2.

Characteristics of students who participated in the study (n=333)

Characteristic	n	%
Gender		
Female	181	54%
Male	152	46%
Age		
9	3	1%
10	42	13%
11	145	44%
12	129	39%
13	9	3%
14	5	2%
Ethnic group		
Java	294	88.3%
Sunda	3	0.9%
Bugis	1	0.3%
Padang	1	0.3%
Malay	2	0.6%
Java-Malay	13	3.9%
Java-Sunda	6	1.8%
Java-Madura	2	0.6%
Java-Batak	5	1.5%
Java-Betawi	2	0.6%
Java-China	1	0.3%
Java-Papua	1	0.3%
Java-Nusa Tenggara	1	0.3%
Sunda-Malay	1	0.3%
Religion		
Islam	322	97%
Catholic	7	2%
Protestant	4	1%

7.2.2 Measures

Study with Teachers

Teachers' Social and Emotional Practices – Teachers' Perspectives (TSEP-T)

The Teachers' Social and Emotional Practices - Teachers' perspectives (TSEP-T) developed in Study 2 was used in this third study. The items were generated from Study 1 through focus

group discussions and interviews with teachers. Each item was short and described observed or experienced behaviours, such as "I convey words of encouragement to students" and "Working with students makes me happy." Each item, accompanied by a unique numerical tag, was printed onto a 75 mm x 35 mm thin yellow card. To minimise the risk of losing cards, each pack was held together with a rubber band. The Cronbach's alpha for the TSEP-T from this study was considered to be strong (α = .93). Cronbach's alpha values between .7 and .8 are considered acceptable, between .8 and .9 are considered good, and higher than .9 are excellent (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Student-Teacher Relationship Scale – Short Form

The original version of the Student-Teacher Relationship Scale – Short Form (STRS–SF) was designed to evaluate a teacher's feeling about a child, beliefs about the child's feelings toward him or her and the teacher's observations of the child's behaviour in relation to the teacher. Whitaker, Dearth-Wesley, and Gooze (2015) modified the STRS–SF to enable each teacher to give one global or aggregated assessment of his/her relationships with all the students in the classroom.

The teachers participating in Study 3 completed the STRS-SF to provide one global assessment of their relationships with their students. All items were written in a 5-point Likert-type scale range from 1 to 5 (1 = definitely does not apply, 2 = not really, 3 = neutral, not sure, 4 = applies somewhat and 5 = definitely applies). Examples of the items include: "I share an affectionate, warm relationship with these children," "It is easy to be in tune with what these children are feeling" and "Dealing with these children drains my energy." The 15 items of the STRS were grouped into two subscales, closeness and conflict (Hamre & Pianta, 2001). The closeness subscale had seven items pertaining to warmth, security and openness, and the conflict subscale had eight items to assess negative, insecure and hostile aspects of relationships. Subscale scores were calculated by summing items for each subscale, with possible score of 7-35 for closeness and 8-40 for conflict. Higher scores specify higher levels of closeness and conflict. The Chronbach's alpha values were considered acceptable for the Closeness scale (α = .80) and for the Conflict scale (α = .75). To confirm the accuracy, these items were translated into Indonesian language and translated back into English by an independent translator. If inconsistencies occurred in translation, the translation was subsequently reviewed by another independent interpreter.

Study with Students

Teachers' Social and Emotional Practices – Students' Perspectives (TSEP-S)

The items of Teachers' Social-Emotional Practices from Students' perspectives (TSEP-S) were elaborated from the focus group discussions with students conducted during Study 1. The TSEP-S was also used in the previous GOPA study. The TSEP-S items were brief. They illustrated the smallest units of teachers' behaviour in classroom setting, such as: "Teacher speaks gently" and "Teacher does not discriminate his/her students." Each item, complemented by unique numerical tag, was printed onto a 75 mm x 35 mm thin blue card. To minimise the risk of losing cards, each deck was held together with a rubber band. The Cronbach's alpha obtained from this study for the TSEP-S was considered strong ($\alpha = .93$).

Student Connectedness Questionnaire

The first part of this questionnaire was modified from the Student-Teacher Relationship Scale – Short Form (STRS-SF). The STRS-SF was made up of 15 items that were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale (Pianta, 2001). Items fall under two categories, namely Closeness and Conflict. As the present study with students specifically focuses on connectedness, only those items relating to the Closeness subscale were assessed to the extent to which a teacher perceived the teacher-student relationship which is characterised by affection, warmth and open communication. As the original STRS-SF had been designed to be completed by teachers, items were reworded to capture students' perspectives in their relationship to their teacher and peers (Han, 2016). For example, the original item "It is easy to be in tune with what this child is feeling" became "It is easy to be in tune with what my teacher is feeling" and "It is easy to be in tune with what my peers are feeling" respectively.

The second part of this questionnaire was adapted from *National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health's School Connectedness Scale (SCS)* (Resnick et al., 1997). The SCS was designed to measure students' perceived connectedness with school and used frequently in research connectedness with school (e.g. Bonny, Britto, Klostermann, Hornung, & Slap, 2000; Loukas, Roalson, & Herrera, 2010; Loukas, Suzuki, & Horton, 2006). Students responded to items such as "I am happy to be at this school", "I feel safe at this school" and "I feel like I am part of this school. The five items were scored on a five-point scale ranging from 1 ("Strongly Agree") to 5 ("Strongly Disagree"). The higher scores reflect higher levels of school connectedness.

Together, this questionnaire consisted of 19 items. The teacher connectedness subscale consisted of 7 items (α = .71), the school connectedness subscale consisted of 5 items (α = .74) and the peer connectedness subscale consisted of 7 items (α = .76). These alpha values were considered acceptable for the purposes of this study.

All items in this questionnaire were translated into the Indonesian language and translated back into English by an independent interpreter to ensure fidelity. If inconsistencies were observed in the translation, these were reviewed by another independent translator.

Student Wellbeing Scale

The student wellbeing scale (Kurniastuti, 2013) is a 39-item scale designed to measure the wellbeing of primary school students in Indonesia. This scale is based largely on Pollard and Lee's (2003) review of child wellbeing research. Kurniastuti (2013) noted that the items represent 10 aspects of student wellbeing: (1) being able to control emotion, (2) showing resiliency in facing problem, (3) having high self-esteem, (4) having high curiosity, (5) participating in learning and school activities, (6) showing perseverance in learning process, (7) being able to communicate what he/she feels and thinks, (8) being able to position themselves in others' situations, (9) demonstrating confidence and comfort in interacting with friends, teachers and community members and (10) maintaining good relationships with friends, teachers and community members. Item examples are as follow: "I am attentive to my teacher's explanation", "I share my opinion in the classroom" and "I help my friend who needs help". The alpha values for this scale indicated it was reliable (α = .84). All items were written in a 3-point scale range from 1 to 3 (1 = does not apply, 2 = sometimes, 3 = applies). Higher scores indicate higher levels of students' sense of wellbeing.

7.2.3 Data Collection Method

Data were collected through two different tasks. The first procedure was a Q-Sorting method known as Methods of Successive Sort (MOSS) (Kirkland et al., 2004). The TSEP-T and TSEP-S used in Study 2 were utilised again in MOSS. The teachers completed the task with the items generated from the teachers' perspectives while the students rated the items derived from students' perspectives. The second procedure included the completion of a Likert-style questionnaire. The teachers completed the Student-Teacher Relationship Scale – Short Form (STRS–SF) and students completed the Students Connectedness Questionnaire and the

Student Wellbeing Scale. I administered this task with the assistance of three research assistants who had been previously trained in this procedure.

MOSS consisted of a two-step hierarchical ranking task, in which the teachers and the students arranged the teachers' social and emotional practice items according to the frequency with which they engaged in the named practice (for the teachers) or experienced (for the students) those behaviours. Each participant was given an instruction sheet, a deck of cards (85 cards for the teachers and 82 cards for the students), and five small envelopes and one big envelope to keep the cards. Each card was to be sorted into three piles (done/seen more, unsure, done/seen less). After that, each participant was asked to subdivide the items into five more elaborate divisions (clearly done/seen, applies/seen but less often, still unsure, possibly done/seen, not done/seen at all).

The teachers completed the task individually, accompanied by the researcher or research assistant. The students completed the task in a group. Each student was given a pile of cards that was arranged in sequential order. The researcher or research assistant instructed the students to take the first card and to read it aloud. Then, the students were asked to put the card directly in the box indicated on the instruction sheet whether that behaviour was seen more, unsure or seen less. The researcher or research assistant guided the students completing the task until card number 10. Afterward, the students were instructed to subdivide those ten cards. The students picked up all the cards on the 'seen more' box and split them into two further piles of 'clearly seen' and 'seen but less often.' Then the students picked up all the cards on the 'unsure' box and decided whether they wanted to shift any of the cards into either side piles. Finally, the students split the cards in the 'seen less' box into 'possibly seen' and 'not seen at all'. After that, the researcher or research assistant checked the students' understanding of the task. The majority of the students understood and were instructed to continue with the remaining cards. Some students who still need instruction were helped individually (see Figure 7.1).

After completing the rating task, the teachers completed the STRS–SF while the students completed the connectedness and wellbeing questionnaires. The teachers spent 45 minutes on average to complete the rating task and questionnaire. The students took approximately 1.5 hours to finish the rating task and two questionnaires. After finishing the task, the teachers received a mug as a souvenir whilst the students received snacks and refreshments.

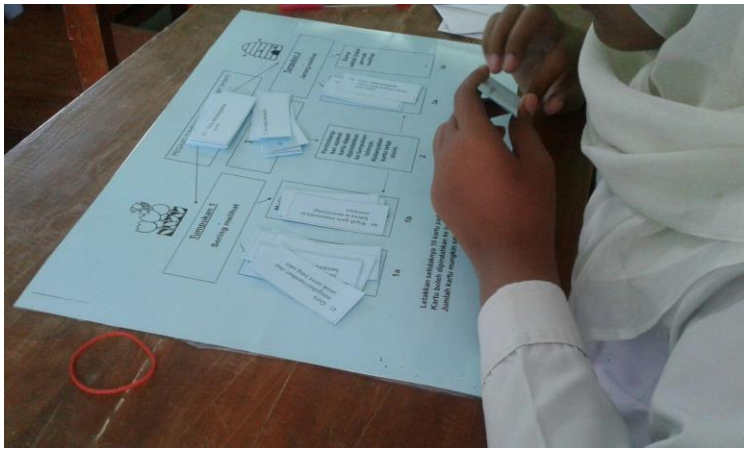

Figure 7. 1. A student was completing MOSS

7.2.4 Data Analysis

The data analysis procedures can be divided into three sections. Firstly, *sorting items into factors,* where Horn's parallel analysis and rotated factor analysis were used on the rating data to determine the optimal number of factors for the items. Secondly, *sorting teachers and students into groups based on factor scores,* which forms the steps whereby factor analysis was administered to identify groups of teachers and students who responded in similar ways. In this phase, Q-factor and hierarchical cluster analyses were utilised to determine the optimal number of styles, and *k*-means cluster analysis was used to optimise case assignment to style. Finally, to examine the association of teaching practices with teacher-student relationship, connectedness and wellbeing, ANOVA and Pearson's *r* correlation on SPSS were used in this phase.

Factor Analysis

The first step in establishing factors (themes) of teachers' social-emotional practices was to determine the number of factors that must be retained by applying parallel analysis to the rating data. According to Zwick and Velicer (1986), among the other techniques for determining the number of factors in data sets, the parallel analysis is the most accurate, presenting the least variability and sensitivity to different factors. Parallel analysis was introduced by Horn (1965). Horn's parallel analysis is a Monte-Carlo based simulation method that contrasts the observed eigenvalues with uncorrelated normal variables. Particularly, the observed eigenvalues are compared with a distribution of eigenvalues gained from multiple

trials with random, unstructured and uncorrelated data, but otherwise matches the observed data, to see what possible structures may develop by random chance (Hayton, Allen, & Scarpello, 2004). To be considered significant, the observed eigenvalues should stand outside this randomised distribution. A factor is retained if the associated eigenvalue is larger than the 95th percentile of the distribution of eigenvalues derived from the random data (Cota, Longman, Holden, Fekken, & Xinaris, 1993). From the rating data, five factors from the teacher-perceived data and eight factors from the student-perceived data were found to have sufficiently large eigenvalues and were retained.

The second step involved using a rotation method to alter the location of factors in the dimensional space in order to simplify and clarify the structure of the data (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Russell, 2002). The purpose of factor rotation is to achieve an optimal "simple structure" which attempts to have each variable load on as few factors as possible but maximises the number of high loadings on each variable (Rummel, 1970). "Simple structure" refers to solutions where each factor was defined by a subset of items that has large loadings compare to other items and where each item loaded strongly on only a subset of the common factors (Thurstone, 1947). This structure has been seen in the case that items related to warm interaction between a teacher and student should load highly on relationships but should have close to zero loadings on punitive discipline. The rotation method used in Study 3 was Varimax. One of the most well-known and regarded as the best orthogonal rotation in psychological research is Varimax (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Varimax rotation minimises the number of items that have high loadings on each factor and manages to appoint small loadings even smaller, allowing clear identification of meaningful relationships between items and factors (Russell, 2002; Yong & Pearce, 2013).

The third step was to name each factor according to its underlying meaning. In naming these factors, an advisory panel of individual experts consisting of five Indonesian psychologists were asked to provide suggested names. Each member of the advisory panel was given a list of items that had factor loadings of .40 and higher for each of the factors. The names suggested by the advisory panel members were taken into consideration for the final factor names.

Prototypal Styling

After the factors of teachers' social-emotional practices were established, the styles of teachers as perceived by the teachers and students were organised. A style is a group of teachers and students who share a similar response same pattern to the identified factors. Alternatively,

styles can be understood as representations of teachers' priorities related to social-emotional philosophies and behaviours.

To begin this process, factor analysis was applied to identify groups of teachers and students who responded in similar way. The original data matrix was transposed or flipped along its diagonal so that columns become rows and vice versa and used to conduct Q-factor analysis (Bang & Montgomery, 2010). Factor analysis was designed to examine item similarity whereas Q-factor analysis to examine patterns of scores across participants or cases (Coxon, 1982). The output of this analysis includes a loading indicating a participant's similarity to each factor.

To explore patterns of scores across the 90 teachers and 333 students, both hierarchical and non-hierarchical clustering methods were utilised. Hierarchical cluster analysis was employed to the table of loadings obtained from Q-factor analysis to establish the optimal number of styles. In this phase, Ward's (1963) method was used as the preferred agglomerative clustering methods for creating groups. Ward's algorithm aggregates clusters based on comparisons of each cluster's sum of squares. Once a case is assigned to a cluster, it is not removed anymore, even if a subsequent agglomeration may cause a different cluster to be a better match. Thus, after Ward's method was applied to determine the number of clusters, style cluster centres and identify outliers, a non-hierarchical method was utilised to confirm the cases were assigned to the best cluster (Hair et al., 2010). Next, the non-hierarchical algorithm used to optimise the assignment of cases to style clusters was *k*-Means cluster analysis. The mean scores on each factor for each Ward's derived cluster were used to seed the *k*-Means cluster analysis. The result was the fine-tuning of individual case assignment to cluster, which accomplished through maximising both within-cluster homogeneity and distance between clusters (Hair et al., 2010).

The last step examined multicollinearity between factor scores using Pearson correlation coefficient or Pearson's *r*. Multicollinearity within a cluster analysis signals that correlated variables could unjustifiably affect the cluster solution (Meyers, Gamst, & Guarion, 2013). No correlation was found between any of the factors, representing that other factors do not significantly affect a given factor score.

Student-teacher relationship, students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing

The final step was to explore the resulting styles' distinguishing characteristics by comparing their average teacher-student relationship, connectedness and students' wellbeing scores and

factor scores. SPSS was used to examine the association between teacher styles and connectedness and school wellbeing. First, an ANOVA was conducted to assess whether between-groups variance was significant for teacher, peer and school connectedness and also school wellbeing. Significant between-group variance would indicate that differences in mean teacher-student relationship, connectedness and students' wellbeing scores would be meaningful. In addition, a correlation matrix of connectedness measures and the five factors was produced using Pearson's *r* correlation on SPSS to assess the association between connectedness and school wellbeing and individual factors.

7.3 Results

7.3.1 Teacher-perceived Data

This section provides further answers to the last two research questions in this thesis, i.e., "What are the individual or idiosyncratic profiles of Indonesian teachers' social and emotional practices?" and "How do Indonesian teachers' social and emotional skills relate to teacher-student relationships and their students' sense of wellbeing and connectedness?" To investigate and respond to these research questions, a number of analyses were conducted to first identify factors of teacher-reported social-emotional practice and secondly, to explore how teachers' social-emotional practices were expressed.

Factors and Interpretations

Parallel analysis and rotated factor analysis were administered on the rating data to discover the optimal number of factors for the 85 items. Using parallel analysis, five factors were established to have sufficiently large eigenvalues and were retained. To determine the ideal item arrangement across the five factors, a rotated factor analysis was employed. These five teacher perceived factors were *relational philosophy, social-emotional acceptance and regulation, interpersonal approach, social-emotional support* and *personable* (see Table 7.3).

Table 7. 3.

Teacher Perceived Factor

Factor name	Description	Item example
Relational philosophy	Teachers' beliefs about their profession as a duty from God and also about their responsibility to the students	Teacher believes work is service to God, Teacher believes students need guidance, Teachers believes that his/her words have impact on students
Social-emotional acceptance and regulation	Teachers' acceptance to students' conditions and emotions, teachers' regulation of own emotions and also students' emotions and teachers' encouragement to students	Teacher accepts students' feeling, Teacher manages his/her feeling to help students regulate their feeling (e.g., being calm), Teacher calms an emotional student down, Teacher conveys words of encouragement to students,
Interpersonal approach	Teachers' effort to build close and positive teacher-student relationships	Teacher is a friend for students, Working with students makes teacher happy, Teacher has close relations with students
Social-emotional support	Teachers' attempt to support students' social-emotional needs	Teacher visits students' house, Teacher rewards students' achievement, Teacher supports students to cope with their academic and non-academic problem
Personable	Teachers' attributes that support students' learning and development	Teacher is kind, Teacher is patient, Teacher is firm, Teacher is rarely angry

Teachers' Social-Emotional Practice Styles

After factor scores for each student had been specified, the following step was to construct styles of factor scores. Each style corresponds to a group of teachers who have the same pattern in responding to the five factors described above. In this manner, a style represents a sub-group of teachers who have reported the same pattern of social-emotional practices.

As explained in Section 7.1.4, hierarchical cluster analysis was applied to the table of loadings to provide the optimal number of styles of factor scores obtained from the 90 teachers. This produces heterogeneity coefficient values, which were converted to line graph to understand the data. The number that corresponds to the point when the line becomes rapidly steeper is a sign of the number of styles to retain. Five clusters were shown to fit the data. To optimise the assignment of styles to the five clusters, *k*-means cluster analysis was conducted with k=5.

Teachers were evenly distributed across five styles. Of the overall percentages, style 1 accounted for 19% (n = 17), style 2 for 35% (n = 35), style 3 for 16% (n = 14), style 4 for 17=3% (n = 12) and style 5 for 13% (n = 12). All five teachers' social-emotional styles based on teachers' reports are plotted in Figure 7.2 to show the way styles are dissimilar in their engagement in the five factors. The summary styles are plotted in Figure 7.3 and 7.4. The five factors are displayed on the x-axis. The factor order is arbitrary. The level of engagement is signified by a characteristic score which displayed on the y-axis. A high positive score represents the presence of the particular characteristic, whereas a high negative score reflects the absence of the particular characteristic. A factor value close to zero suggests that the particular characteristic was unnoticed or at baseline levels. Thus, styles can be seen as teachers' priorities around types of social-emotional practices. Variance of teachers' social-emotional styles is presented in Table 7.4.

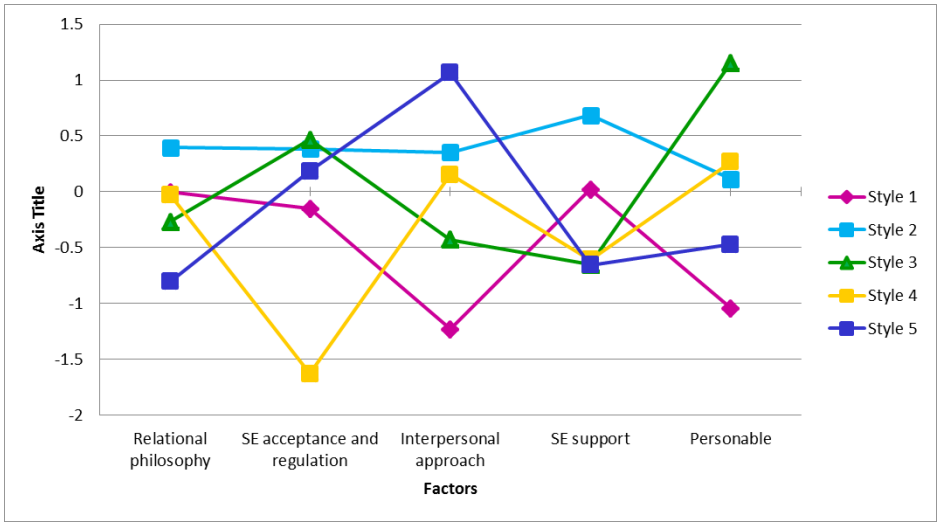

Figure 7. 2. Five styles of teacher-perceived teacher social emotional practices across styles

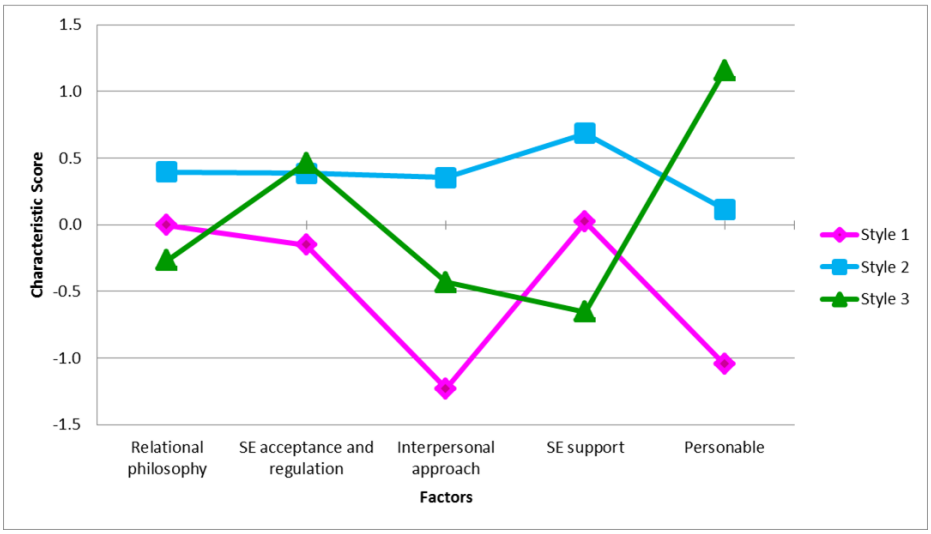

Figure 7. 3. Teacher perceived Style 1, 2 and 3

Style 1 (Disengaged) was reported by 19% of participants (n = 17). Style 1 was characterised by having high negative scores on *interpersonal approach* and *personable.* Other characteristics, *relational philosophy, social-emotional acceptance and regulation* and *social-emotional support* were unremarkable.

Style 2 (Supportive and nurturing) accounted for 39% of all participants (n = 35). Style 2 was characterised by having least extreme values in comparison to all other styles. Teachers in this group had a moderate positive value on *social-emotional support.* They showed low positive values on *relational philosophy, social-emotional acceptance and regulation* and *interpersonal approach.* Other characteristic, *personable* was unseen in this style.

Style 3 (Accepting of students but passive) was reported by 16% of participants (n = 14). Style 3 was characterised by having the highest positive score on *personable* among other styles. Teachers in this group showed low positive score associated with *social-emotional acceptance and regulation,* a low negative score on *interpersonal approach* and a moderate negative score on *social-emotional support.*

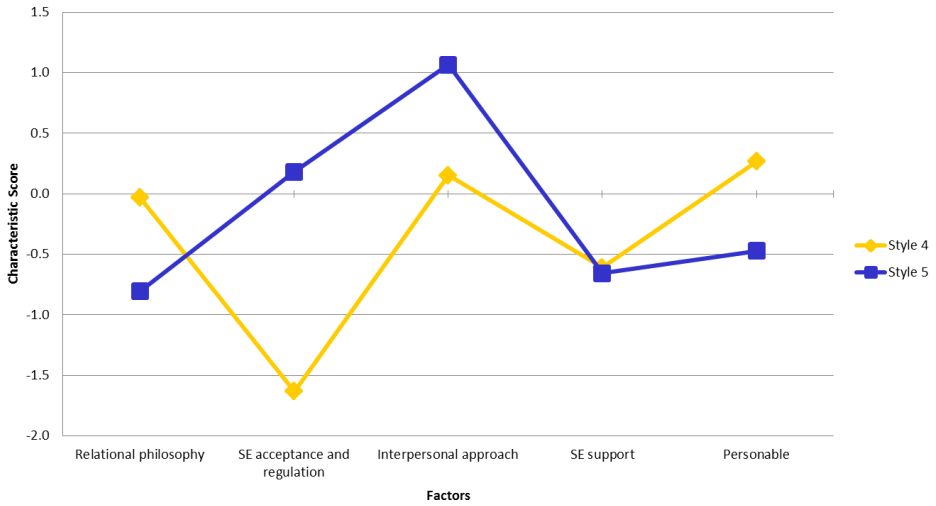

Figure 7. 4. Teacher perceived Style 4 and 5

Style 4 (Indifferent, minimise emotion) was reported by 13% of participants (n = 12). Style 4 was characterised by having a moderate negative score associated with *social-emotional support* and the highest negative score of *social-emotional acceptance and regulation* among other styles. Other than those, *relational philosophy, interpersonal approach* and *personable* were unremarkable in this style.

Style 5 (Affable, low in passion) accounted for 13% of participants (n = 12). Among other styles, Style 5 showed the largest positive score of *interpersonal approach* and the largest negative value of *relational philosophy* among other styles. Teachers in this group had a low negative score on *personable* and a moderate negative score on *social-emotional support. Social-emotional acceptance and regulation* was unseen in this style.

Table 7. 4.

Summary Characteristics and Description of Five Styles

Teacher Style		Style characteristics	Description
1.	Disengaged	High negative scores on *interpersonal approach* and *personable*.	Prefers to keep a distance in his/her relationship with students. Unlikely to demonstrate warm and friendly personality.
2.	Supportive and nurturing	Moderate positive score on *social-emotional support*. Low positive scores on *relational philosophy, social-emotional acceptance and regulation* and *interpersonal approach*.	Supports students' needs/shows focus to students as individuals. Likely to have strong beliefs about teaching, to accept and manage students' emotions and to make him/herself emotionally close and available for students.
3.	Accepting of students but passive	High positive score on *personable*. Low positive score on *social-emotional acceptance and regulation*. Low negative score on *interpersonal approach*. Moderate negative score on *social-emotional support*.	Demonstrates warm and friendly personality. Likely to accept and manage students' emotions. Less likely to make him/herself emotionally close and available for students and to support students' needs/show focus to students as individuals.
4.	Indifferent, minimise emotion	Moderate negative score on *social-emotional support*. High negative score on s*ocial-emotional acceptance and regulation*.	Less likely to support students' needs/show focus to students as individuals. Unlikely to accept and manage students' emotions.
5.	Affable, low in passion	High positive score on *interpersonal approach*. Low negative score on *personable*. Moderate negative score on *social-emotional support*. High negative score on *relational philosophy*.	Makes him/herself close and available for students. Less likely to demonstrate appropriate behaviours to be a role-model, to support students' needs/show focus to students as individuals. Unlikely to have a strong belief about teaching

Teachers' Style by Demographic Data

Gender. Figure 7.5 displays the distribution of teachers' membership across the above five styles according to their gender. *Disengaged* was reported by 19% of participants (n = 17), with six male and 11 female teachers. *Supportive and Nurturing* accounted for 39% of all participants (n = 35), with eight male and 27 female teachers, while *Accepting of Student but Passive* was reported by 16% of participants (n = 14), with five male and nine female teachers. *Indifferent, Minimise Emotion* was reported by 13% of participants (n = 12), with four male and eight

female teachers, and lastly, *Affable, Low in Passion* accounted for 13% of participants (n = 12), with five male and seven female teachers.

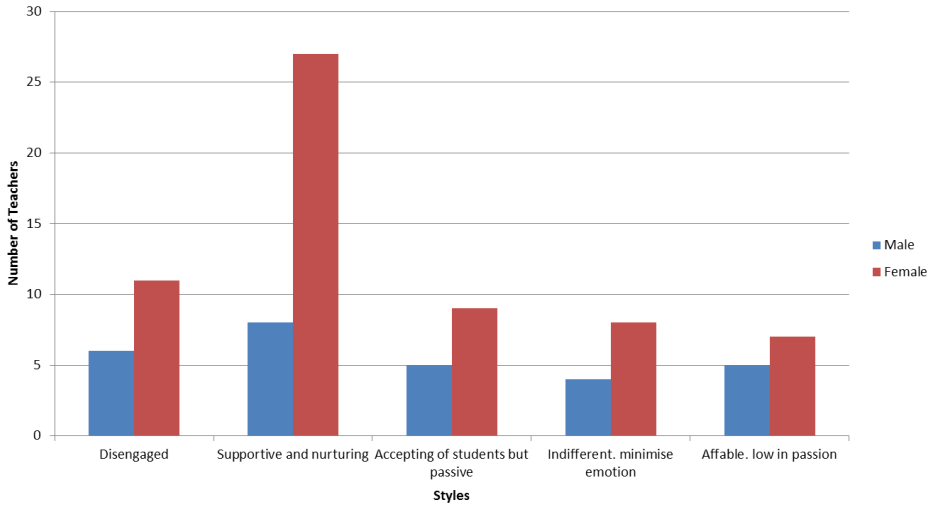

Figure 7. 5. The gender frequency distribution of across five styles

Age. Figure 7.6 shows the age distribution of the teachers' membership across the five styles. There are 17 teachers in the *Disengaged* group of styles and 11 of them between 51-60 years old. *Supportive and Nurturing* accounted for 35 participants, 16 of them are in the age range of 51-60 years old, and 12 of them are in the age range of 41-50 years old. Fourteen teachers are in the *Accepting of Student but Passive* group of styles; seven of them are in the age range of 51-60 years old, while six of them are between 41-50 years old. *Indifferent, Minimise Emotion* was reported by 12 teachers and seven of them are between 41-50 years old. The last group of styles, *Affable, Low in Passion,* accounted for 12 teachers where six of them are in the age range of 41-50 years old and four of them are in the age range of 21-30 years old.

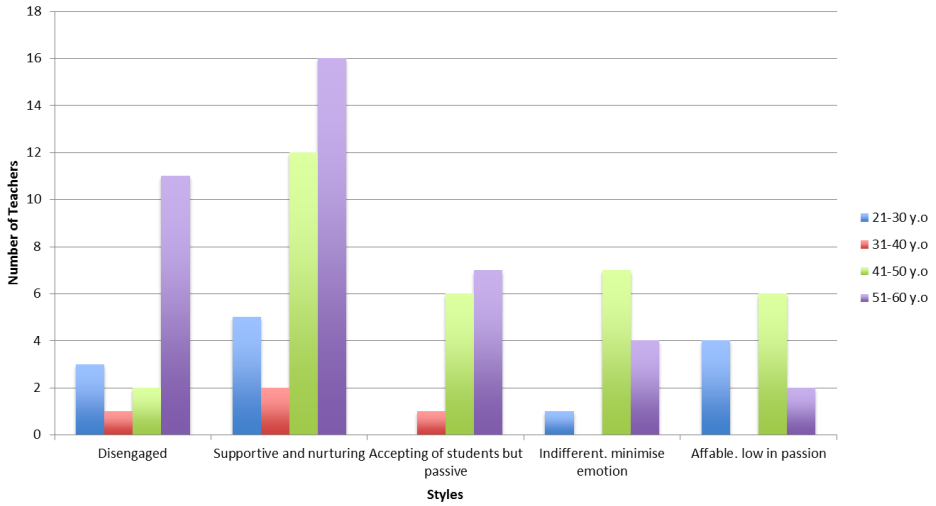

Figure 7. 6. The age-group frequency distribution across five styles

Experience. Figure 7.7 shows the distribution of teachers' membership across the five styles based on their teaching experience. There are 17 teachers in the *Disengaged* group of styles and 13 of them have more than 15 years teaching experience. Similarly, in the *Supportive and Nurturing* group of styles that accounted for 35 participants, most of them (25 teachers) have more than 15 years teaching experience. In the *Accepting of Student but Passive* group of styles; eight of them have taught for more than 15 years. *Indifferent, Minimise Emotion* was reported by 12 teachers and seven of them have more than 15 years teaching experience and lastly, *Affable, Low in Passion* group of style accounted for 12 teachers where seven of them have been taught for more than 15 years.

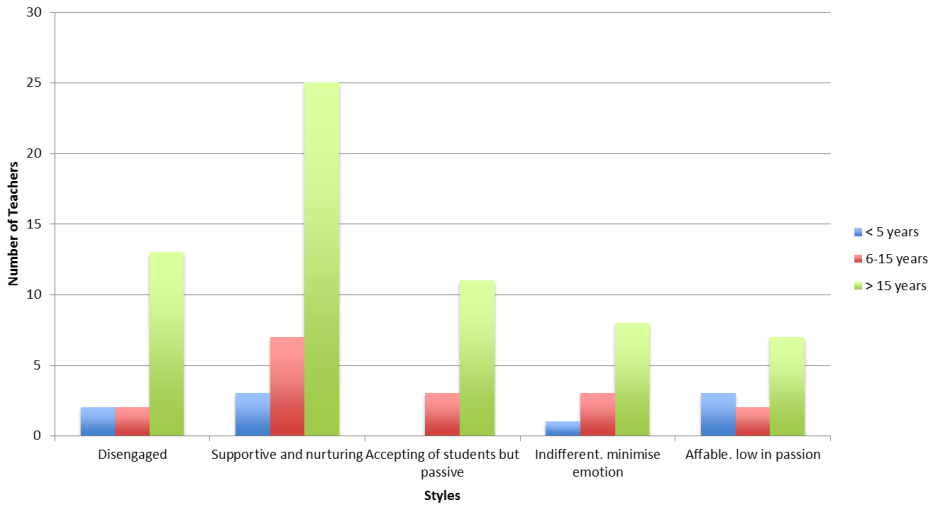

Figure 7. 7. The teaching experience frequency distribution across five styles

7.3.2 Student-perceived Data

Through a number of statistical analyses, factors of student-reported teachers' social-emotional practices were identified. Factors and interpretations are presented, followed by student-reported teachers' social-emotional styles and interpretation.

Factors and Interpretations

Parallel analysis and rotated factor analysis were conducted on the rating data to determine the optimal number of factors for the 82 items. From the parallel analysis, eight factors were found to have sufficiently large eigenvalues and were retained. To determine the ideal placement of items across the eight factors, the rotated factor analysis was used. These eight factors were *prioritising learning; models and regulates; social-emotional support; interpersonal approach; guiding relationships; thoughtfulness; gentleness;* and *reinforcement-focused* (see Table 7.5).

Teachers' Social-Emotional Behaviour Styles

Teachers were evenly distributed across 10 styles. Of the overall percentages, style 1 accounted for 9% (n = 30), style 2 for 16% (n = 53), style 3 for 9% (n = 29), style 4 for 10% (n = 34), style 5 for 16% (n = 53), style 6 for 10% (n = 34), style 7 for 8% (n = 26), style 8 for 12% (n = 40), style 9 for 6% (n = 19) and style 10 for 5% (n = 15).

All ten teachers' social-emotional styles are plotted in Figure 7.8 to show the ways in which styles are dissimilar in their engagement to the eight factors. The styles are plotted in Figures 7.9 to 7.11. Variance of teachers' social-emotional styles is presented in Table 7.6.

Table 7. 5.

Student Perceived Factor

Factor name	Description	Item example
Prioritising learning	Teachers' strategies and effort that explicitly addressed students' learning	Teacher is willing to teach the students until they understand, Teacher reminds the student to keep studying, Teacher gives reasonable homework
Models and regulates	Teachers' characteristics and behaviours that can be a positive example for students and teachers' attempt to regulate students' attitude and behaviour	Teacher tells story about successful people to motivate students, Teacher is kind, Teacher motivates students, Teacher is on time
Social-emotional support	Teachers' action to support students' social and emotional needs	Teacher asks sad student to talk with him/her, Teacher sits with sad student, Teacher visits sick student, Teacher cheers up sad student
Interpersonal approach	Teachers' explicit behaviour to establish warm and close relationships with their students	Teacher is willing to chat with the students, Teacher accepts student's mistake, Teacher listens to student, Teacher accepts student's feeling
Guiding relationships	Teachers' action to establish the classroom rules and boundaries	Teacher reprimands student who makes mistake, Teacher punishes rule-breaking student, Teacher encourages students to forgive their friend
Thoughtfulness	Teachers' attentiveness to students condition	Teacher buys something for student in need, Teacher is open to talk about his/herself to student, Teacher likes to tell a story
Gentleness	Teachers' behaviours reflecting gentleness in their interaction with students	Teacher is slow to anger, Teacher speaks gently, Teacher is gentle
Reinforcement-focused	Teachers' effort to strengthen students' confident by reinforcing and praising students	Teacher compliments students who have achieved, Teacher compliments students who act well, Teacher praises generously

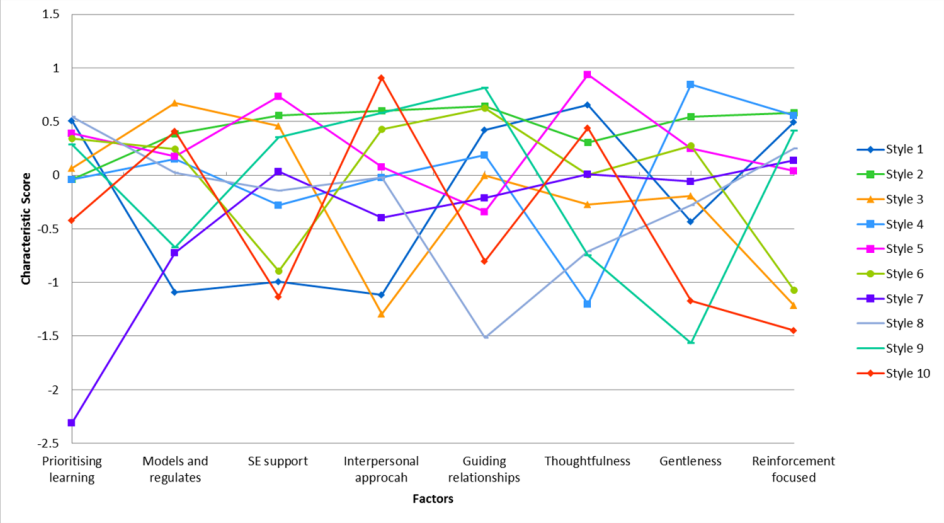

Figure 7. 8. Ten styles of student-perceived teachers' social-emotional practice from 333 participants

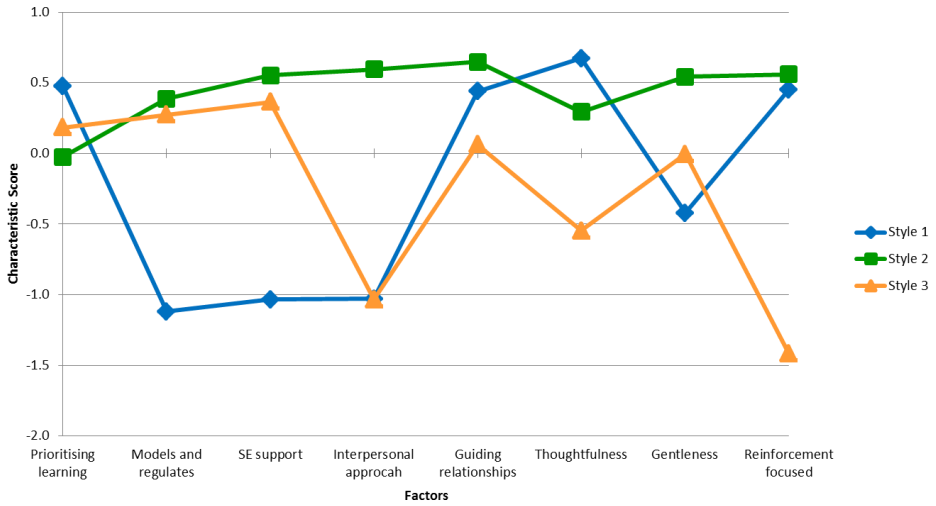

Figure 7. 9. Student perceived Style 1, 2 and 3

Style 1 (Kind but distant) accounted for 9% of all participants (n = 30). Students in the Style 1 group had teachers who they reported to have a moderate positive score on *thoughtfulness* and low positive scores on *prioritising learning, guiding relationships* and *reinforcement-focused.* They also had teachers who have a moderate negative score on *gentleness* and high negative scores on *models and regulates, social-emotional support* and *interpersonal approach.*

Style 2 (Structured, encouraging) was reported by 16% of participants (n = 53). Students in Style 2 group had teachers who reportedly having least extreme values in comparison to all other styles. Students in this style reported that their teachers have a moderate positive value on *guiding relationships,* low positive values on *models and regulates, social-emotional support,*

interpersonal approach, gentleness and *reinforcement-focused.* The other characteristics, *prioritising learning* and *thoughtfulness* were unseen by the students in this style.

Style 3 (Indifferent) was reported by for 9% of participants (n = 29). Students in the Style 3 group had teachers who they reported to have a low positive score on *social-emotional support,* a moderate negative score on *thoughtfulness* and high negative scores on *interpersonal approach* and *reinforcement-focused. Prioritising learning, models and regulates, guiding relationships* and *gentleness* were unnoticed.

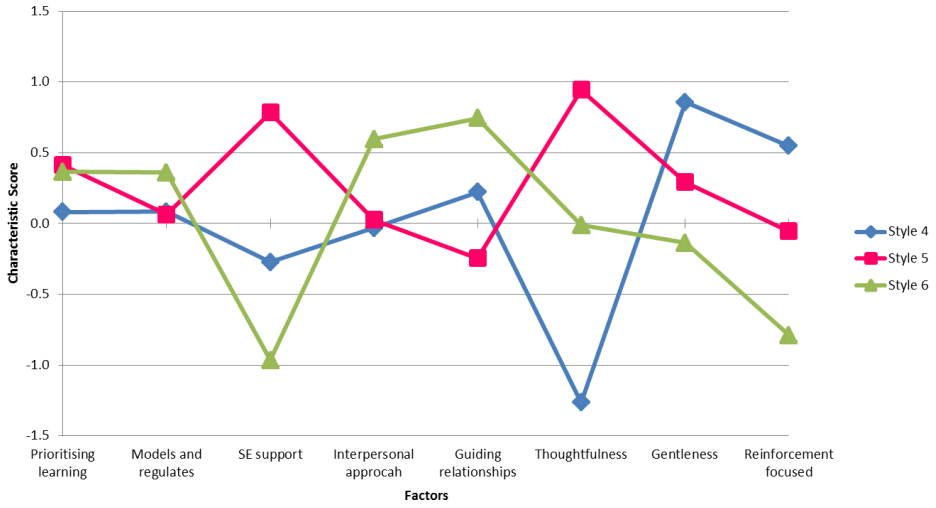

Figure 7. 10. Student perceived Style 4, 5 and 6

Style 4 (Gentle but inattentive) accounted for 10% of participants (n = 34). Students in Style 4 group had teachers who they reported to have a high positive score associated with *gentleness,* a low positive score on *reinforcement-focused* and a high negative score on *thoughtfulness.* Another characteristic, *prioritising learning, models and regulates, social-emotional support, interpersonal approach* and *guiding relationships* were undiscovered in this style.

Style 5 (Empathetic) was reported by 16% of participants (n = 53). Students in Style 5 reported that their teachers had a high positive value on *thoughtfulness,* a moderate positive value on *social-emotional support* and a low positive value on *prioritising learning.* Other than these, *models and regulates, interpersonal approach, guiding relationships, gentleness* and *reinforcement-focused* were unseen by the students in this style.

Style 6 (Structured, unresponsive) was reported by 10% of participants (n = 34). Students in Style 6 reported that their teachers had a moderate positive score on *guiding relationships*, low positive scores on *interpersonal approach, prioritising learning* and *models and regulates.* Students also had teachers who reportedly to have moderate negative scores on *social-emotional support* and *reinforcement-focused. Thoughtfulness* and *gentleness* were unnoticed.

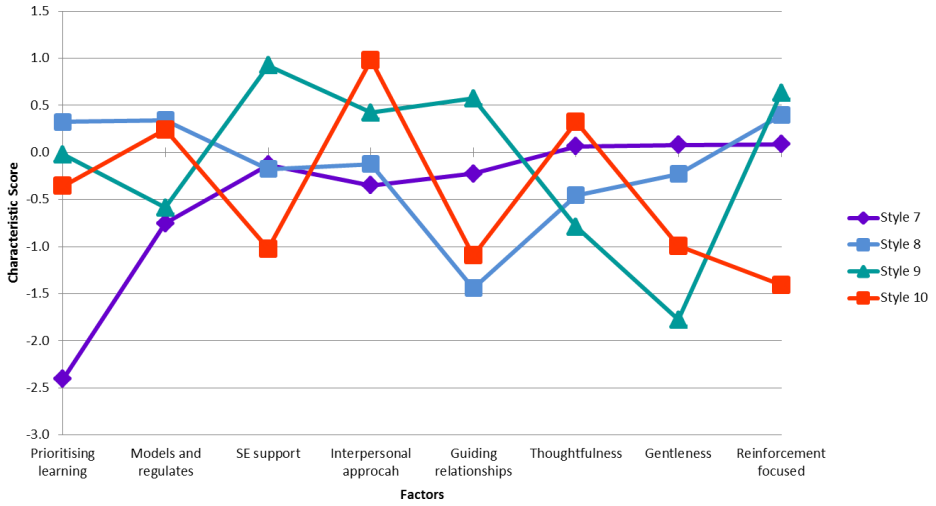

Figure 7. 11. Student perceived Style 7, 8, 9 and 10

Style 7 (Disengaged) was reported by 8% of participants (n = 26). Style 7 showed mostly zero to high negative values. Students in this group had teachers who reportedly had a low negative value on *interpersonal approach,* a moderate negative value on *models and regulates* and a high negative value on *prioritising learning.* The other characteristics, *social-emotional support, guiding relationships, thoughtfulness, gentleness* and *reinforcement-focused* were unseen by the students in this style.

Style 8 (Learning-focused, disorganised) accounted for 12% of participants (n = 40). Students in Style 8 group had teachers who they reported to have low positive scores on *prioritising learning, models and regulates* and *reinforcement-focused.* Students in this style had teachers who were perceived to have a low negative score on *thoughtfulness* and a high negative score on *guiding relationships. Social-emotional support, interpersonal approach* and *gentleness* were unnoticed.

Style 9 (Collaborative but firm) was reported by 6% of participants (n = 19). Students in Style 9 group had teachers who they reported to have a high positive score on *social-emotional*

support, a moderate positive score on *reinforcement-focus,* and low positive scores on *guiding relationships* and *interpersonal approach.* Students in this group had teachers who had a low negative score on *models and regulates,* a moderate negative score on *thoughtfulness* and a high negative score on *gentleness. Prioritising learning* was unseen.

Table 7. 6.

Summary Characteristics and Description of Ten Style

Teacher Style		Style characteristics	Description
1.	Kind but distant	Moderate positive score on *thoughtfulness.* Low positive scores on *prioritising learning, guiding relationships* and *reinforcement-focused.* Moderate negative score on *gentleness.* High negative scores on *models and regulates, social-emotional support* and *interpersonal approach.*	Responsive to students' personal need and achievement. Likely to focus on learning and motivating students. Prefers to keep distance in his/her relationship with students.
2.	Structured, encouraging	Moderate positive score on *guiding relationships.* Low positive scores on *models and regulates, social-emotional support, interpersonal approach, gentleness* and *reinforcement-focused.*	Focus on motivating students and creating safe classroom environment. Shows appropriate behaviours as a role-model, fosters close bonds with students, recognize students' achievement.
3.	Indifferent	Low positive score on *social-emotional support.* Moderate negative score on *thoughtfulness.* High negative scores on *interpersonal approach* and *reinforcement-focused.*	Slightly sensitive and supportive to students' conditions and emotions. Apt to not make active effort to build positive relationship with students. Unlikely to acknowledge students' achievement.
4.	Gentle but inattentive	High positive score associated with *gentleness.* Low positive score on *reinforcement-focused.* High negative score on *thoughtfulness.*	Gentle and recognize students' achievement. Unlikely to be sensitive to students' conditions and emotions.
5.	Empathetic	High positive value on *thoughtfulness.* Moderate positive value on *social-emotional support.* Low positive value on *prioritising learning.*	Sensitive and supportive to students' emotions, conditions and needs. Tend to focus on learning.

(continued)

Table 7. 6. (continued)

Summary Characteristics and Description of Ten Style

Teacher Style		Style characteristics	Description
6.	Structured, unresponsive	Moderate positive score on *guiding relationships*. Low positive scores on *interpersonal approach, prioritising learning* and *models and regulates.* Moderate negative scores on *social-emotional support* and *reinforcement-focused.*	Focus on motivating students and creating safe classroom environment. Likely to develop close bonds with students. Unlikely to be supportive to students' needs and accomplishment.
7.	Disengaged	Low negative value on *interpersonal approach.* Moderate negative value on *models and regulates.* High negative value on *prioritising learning.*	Prefers to keep a distance in their relationship with students. Less likely to show appropriate behaviours as the role-model. Not really focus on learning.
8.	Learning-focused, disorganised	Low positive scores on *prioritising learning, models and regulates* and *reinforcement-focused.* Low negative score on *thoughtfulness*. High negative score on *guiding relationships.*	Focus on learning and recognize students' accomplishment. To some degree show appropriate behaviours as the role-model. Unlikely to be sensitive to students' needs. Tend to not give clear boundaries to maintain classroom environment.
9.	Collaborative but firm	High positive score on *social-emotional support.* Moderate positive score on *reinforcement-focus.* Low positive scores on *guiding relationships* and *interpersonal approach.* Low negative score on *models and regulates.* Moderate negative score on *thoughtfulness*. High negative score on *gentleness.*	Supportive to students' needs and acknowledge students' achievement. Likely to develop close relationship with students and to motivate students to maintain classroom environment. Unlikely to be sensitive to students' emotions and to treat students gently.
10.	Friendly but uninvolved	High positive score on *interpersonal approach.* Low positive score on *thoughtfulness.* Low negative score on *prioritising learning.* High negative scores on *social-emotional support, guiding relationships, gentleness* and *reinforcement-focused.*	Develops close bonds with students and sensitive to students' emotions. Less likely to be supportive to students' need and to be gentle. Unlikely to recognize students' accomplishment. Tend to not give clear boundaries to maintain classroom environment.

Style 10 (Friendly but uninvolved) accounted for only 5% of participants (n = 15). Students in Style 10 group had teachers who they reported to have a high positive score on *interpersonal approach* and a low positive score on *thoughtfulness*. Students in this style had teachers who were seen to have a low negative score on *prioritising learning* and high negative scores on *social-emotional support, guiding relationships, gentleness* and *reinforcement-focused. Models and regulates* was unseen by the students in this style.

7.4 Student-Teacher Relationships

One-way repeated measures, analysis of variance (ANOVA), were computed for two domains of student-teacher relationship and five styles. The result indicated a significant between-group variance for closeness ($p<.05$; $F=5.356$, $\eta^2=0.201$), but not for conflict ($p>.05$; $F=2.251$, $\eta^2=0.096$) (see Table 7.7).

Table 7. 7.

Summary of ANOVA Results Comparing Mean Student-Teacher Relationship Scores by Five Teacher Styles

Teacher-student relationship		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Closeness (STR items 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 15)	Between Groups	166.28	4	41.57	5.356	.001
	Within Groups	659.68	85	7.76		
	Total	825.96	89			
Conflict (STR items 2, 4, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14)	Between Groups	166.65	4	41.66	2.251	.070
	Within Groups	1572.95	85	18.50		
	Total	1739.60	89			

Next, the associations between the five factors and closeness and conflict were examined. A correlation matrix of the factors and closeness and conflict was produced using Pearson's *r* correlation on SPSS as shown in Table 7.8.

Table 7. 8.

Correlations Between Factors and Student-Teacher Relationship

Factor	Closeness (STR items 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 15)	Conflict (STR items 2, 4, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14)
Relational philosophy	.02	-.02
Social-emotional acceptance and regulation	.15	-.25*
Interpersonal approach	.30**	-.32**
Social-emotional support	.24*	.05
Personable	.19	-.20

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Interpersonal approach and *Social-emotional support* were significantly positively correlated to student-teacher relationship, while *Interpersonal approach* and *Social-emotional acceptance and regulation* were significantly negatively correlated to conflict. Notably, *Interpersonal approach* was the most strongly associated factor with both closeness and conflict. This finding indicates that teachers' attempt to establish warm interaction with their students such as chatting and joking around may be particularly important in developing a close relationship.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean student-teacher relationship scores for closeness and conflict for each style, shown in Table 7.9. It is important to note that the possible score ranges differed between the two student-teacher relationship measures. The mean scores for *closeness* are out of a possible score of 35 while the mean scores for *Conflict* are out of 40. This difference was considered when interpreting the results.

Results showed that feeling of positive relationships with their students was greatest for teachers in the *Affable, Low in Passion* style (*M* = 30.17, *SD* = 2.82), followed by *Supportive and Nurturing* (*M* = 30.14, *SD* = 2.80), and lowest for *Disengaged* (*M* = 26.65, *SD* = 2.76). On the other hand, conflict between teacher and student was greatest for teachers in the *Disengaged* style (*M* = 18.65, *SD* = 4.06) and lowest for *Accepting of students but passive* (*M* = 14.86, *SD* = 3.32). The style with the lowest closeness score and the highest conflict score was the *Disengaged* style. This style was characterised by notably cold relationship between teacher and students and also low engagement in teaching.

Table 7. 9

Mean Student-Teacher Relationship Scores for Each Style

Style	N	Closeness*		Conflict**	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Affable, low in passion.	12	30.17	2.82	15.00	3.74
Supportive and nurturing	35	30.14	2.80	15.74	5.11
Accepting of students but passive	14	28.93	3.15	14.86	3.32
Indifferent, minimise emotion	12	28.08	2.23	17.33	3.37
Disengaged	17	26.65	2.76	18.65	4.06

*Possible score range is from 7 to 35. **Possible score range is from 8 to 40.

In regards to closeness scores, comparing teachers in the *Affable, low in passion* style group (*M* = 30.17, *SD* = 2.82) and those in *Disengaged* style group (*M* = 18.65, *SD* = 4.06), the mean differences were 3.52 (*1.36* to *5.67 CI.95),* reaching statistical significance: *t(27)* = 3.35, p = .02. Cohen's effect size value (*d* = 1.29) suggested a high practical significance.

Furthermore, regarding conflict scores, comparing teachers in the *Disengaged* style group (*M* = 18.65, *SD* = 4.06) and those in *Accepting of students but passive* style group (*M* = 14.86, *SD* = 3.32), the mean differences were 2.82 (.11, to -4.45 *CI.95*), reaching statistical significance: *t*(29) = 2.15, *p* = .04, Cohen's effect size value (*d* = .80) suggested a high practical significance.

7.5 School Connectedness

Significant between-group variance was found for teacher connectedness ($p<.05$; $F=5.243$, $\eta^2=0.045$), but not for school connectedness ($p>.05$; $F=1.682$, $\eta^2=0.127$) and peer connectedness ($p>.05$; $F=1.361$, $\eta^2=0.036$) (see Table 7.10). Next, a correlation matrix of the factors and connectedness was produced using Pearson's *r* correlation on SPSS as shown in Table 7.11.

Five out of eight factors were significantly correlated to teacher connectedness. These were *Prioritising learning, Models and regulates, Social-emotional support, Interpersonal approach* and *Thoughtfulness*. Results showed that *Thoughtfulness* was most strongly associated with teacher connectedness among all factors. This was followed by *Social-emotional support, Prioritising learning* and *Models and regulates. Interpersonal approach* had the weakest correlation with teacher connectedness.

Table 7. 10.

Summary of ANOVA Results Comparing Mean Connectedness Scores by Ten Teacher Styles

Connectedness measures		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Teacher connectedness	Between Groups	128.90	9	14.32	1.682	.09
	Within Groups	2749.91	323	8.51		
	Total	2878.81	332			
School connectedness	Between Groups	826.06	9	91.78	5.243	.00
	Within Groups	5654.05	323	17.50		
	Total	6480.11	332			
Peer connectedness	Between Groups	222.57	9	24.73	1.361	.20
	Within Groups	5868.21	323	18.17		
	Total	6090.78	332			

Table 7. 11.

Correlations Between Factors and Connectedness

Factor	Teacher connectedness	School connectedness	Peer connectedness
Prioritising learning	.16**	.14*	.02
Models and regulates	.15**	.16**	.11*
Social-emotional support	.18**	.11	.08
Interpersonal approach	.13*	.09	.11*
Guiding relationships	.06	.02	.06
Thoughtfulness	.33**	.09	.11*
Gentleness	.06	.02	-.01
Reinforcement-focused	.01	-.04	-.03

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Two out of eight factors were significantly correlated to school connectedness, i.e., *Prioritising learning* and *Models and regulates*. *Prioritising learning* was most strongly associated with school connectedness, followed by *Models and regulates.* Lastly, three out of eight factors were significantly correlated to peer connectedness, namely *Models and regulates, Interpersonal approach, Thoughtfulness*. *Thoughtfulness* was most strongly associated with peer

connectedness among all factors, which was followed by *Models and regulates* and *Interpersonal approach.*

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean connectedness scores for teacher, school and peer connectedness for each style, shown in Table 7.12. Again, it is important to note that the possible score ranges differed between the three connectedness measures. The mean scores for *Teacher* and *Peer Connectedness* are out of a possible score of 35 while the mean scores for *School Connectedness* are out of 25. This difference was considered when interpreting the results.

Table 7. 12

Mean Connectedness Scores for Each Style

Style	N	Teacher connectedness*		School connectedness**		Peer connectedness***	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Structured, encouraging	53	27.02	3.86	22.02	2.88	28.34	4.53
Empathetic	53	26.57	4.29	21.60	3.49	27.87	4.38
Indifferent	29	24.96	3.82	21.38	2.40	27.41	3.92
Friendly but uninvolved	15	24.93	4.479	21.47	1.73	27.80	4.77
Structured, unresponsive	34	24.65	3.82	21.62	2.07	27.73	3.55
Kind but distant	30	24.17	4.19	20.03	2.78	26.63	3.69
Learning-focused, disorganised	40	23.75	3.65	21.25	2.59	26.40	3.87
Gentle but inattentive	34	23.30	4.16	21.23	2.63	26.56	4.47
Disengaged	26	22.50	5.64	20.11	4.15	26.77	5.60
Collaborative but firm	19	22.21	4.40	20.63	3.25	25.42	3.45

*Possible score range is from 7 to 35. **Possible score range is from 5 to 25. *** Possible score range is from 7 to 35.

Feelings of connectedness with their teacher was greatest for those students in the *Structured, encouraging* style (*M* = 27.02, *SD* = 3.86), and lowest for *Collaborative but firm* (*M* = 22.21, *SD* = 4.40). Feelings of connectedness with their school was greatest for those students in the *Structured, encouraging* style (*M* = 22.02, *SD* = 2.88), and lowest for *Kind but distant* style (*M* = 20.03, *SD* = 2.78). Lastly, feelings of connectedness with their peer was greatest for those students in the *Structured, encouraging* style (*M* = 28.34, *SD* = 4.53), and lowest for *Collaborative but firm* (*M* = 25.42, *SD* = 3.45). The *Structured, encouraging* style was notable for the highest mean scores for teacher, school and peer connectedness. The *Structured, encouraging* style was characterised by teacher's priority on motivating students and creating

safe classroom environment. By contrast, the style with the lowest combined teacher and peer connectedness scores was the *Collaborative but firm* style. The *Collaborative but firm* style was characterised by teacher's insensitivity to students' emotions and tendency to not treat students gently.

In term of teacher connectedness score, comparing students teaching by teachers in *Sturctured, encouraging* style group (M = 27.02, SD = 3.86) and those in *Collaborative but firm* style group (M = 22.21, SD = 4.40), the means differences were 4.80 (*2.67* to *6.94 CI.95),* reaching statistical significance: $t(70)$ = 4.48 p = .00. Cohen's effect size value (d = 1.07) implied a high practical significance.

Furthermore, in regards of school connectedness, comparing students teaching by teachers in *Sturctured, encouraging* style group (M = 22.02, SD = 2.88) and *Kind but distant* style group (M = 20.03, SD = 2.78), the mean differences were 1.98(*.69* to *3.28 CI.95),* reaching statistical significance: $t(81)$ = 3.05, p = .00. Cohen's effect size value (d = .67) suggested a low to medium to high practical significance.

Lastly, regarding peer connectedness, comparing students teaching by teachers in *Sturctured, encouraging* style group (M = 28.34, SD = 4.53) and *Collaborative but firm* style group (M = 25.42, SD = 3.45), the mean differences were 2.91 (*.63* to *5.20 CI.95),* reaching statistical significance: $t(70)$ = 2.54, p = . 01. Cohen's effect size value (d = .60) suggested a medium to high practical significance.

7.6 Students' Wellbeing

While 333 students participated in Study 3, eight of them did not complete the Students' Wellbeing Scale completely. As a result, only 324 students were analysed in this correlation analysis. A one-way ANOVA was calculated on students' ratings of wellbeing. The analysis found a significant between-group variance for students' wellbeing ($p<.05$; $F=3.926$, $\eta^2=0.101$) as displayed in Table 7.13. Following this, the associations between the five factors and closeness and conflict were examined (see Table 7.14).

Table 7. 13.

Summary of ANOVA Results Comparing Mean Wellbeing Scores by Ten Teacher Styles

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2150.62	9	238.96	3.926	.00
Within Groups	19170.23	315	60.86		
Total	21320.85	324			

Table 7. 14.

Correlations Between Factors and Students' Wellbeing

Factor	Teacher Connectedness
Prioritising learning	.20**
Models and regulates	.23**
Social-emotional support	.03
Interpersonal approach	.12*
Guiding relationships	-.01
Thoughtfulness	.06
Gentleness	.09
Reinforcement-focused	-.11

*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Three out of eight factors were significantly correlated to students' wellbeing. These were *Prioritising learning, Models and regulates, Interpersonal approach*. Result showed that *Models and regulates* was most strongly associated with students' wellbeing among all factors, followed by *Prioritising learning. Interpersonal approach* had the weakest correlation with students' wellbeing.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean students' wellbeing scores for each style as displayed in Table 7.15.

Feelings of wellbeing was greatest for those students in the *Structured, encouraging* style (*M* = 99.73, *SD* = 9.22), followed by the *Empathetic* style (*M* = 99.10, *SD* = 8.37). The *Structured, encouraging* and *Empathetic* styles were characterised by teacher's prime concern on establishing safe classroom atmosphere and motivating students. Feelings of wellbeing was lowest for those students in the *Disengaged* style (*M* = 91.79, *SD* = 6.29). The *Disengaged* style

was characterised by a distant relationship between students and their teachers and the teacher's tendency to not focus on learning.

Table 7. 15.

Mean Wellbeing Scores for Each Style

Style	N	Mean	SD
Structured, encouraging	34	99.73	9.22
Empathetic	53	99.10	8.37
Structured, unresponsive	34	98.76	5.65
Friendly but uninvolved	15	98.07	6.25
Indifferent	29	97.34	6.91
Learning-focused, disorganised	40	96.75	6.83
Gentle but inattentive	34	96.70	7.91
Kind but distant	30	93.64	8.07
Collaborative but firm	19	92.05	10.42
Disengaged	26	91.79	6.29

*Possible score range is from 39 to 117.

Comparing students teaching by teachers in *Sturctured, encouraging* style group M = 99.73, SD = 9.22) and teachers in *Disengaged* style group (M = 91.79, SD = 6.29), the means differences were 1.86 (*-4.07* to *7.81 CI.95),* not reaching statistical significance: $t(48)$ = .63, p = .53. Cohen's effect size value (d = .18) suggested a low practical significance.

7.7 Discussion

7.7.1 Factors of teachers' social-emotional practices

As previously mentioned, five factors were identified from TSEP-T and eight factors were established from TSEP-S. These factors can be seen to incorporate the significant areas of teachers' social-emotional practices that emerged from GOPA sorting data. Moreover, a general overlap of factors could be observed across Study 3 and Chia's (2014), Harvey et al.'s (2012) and Han's (2016) studies which similarly explored teachers' social-emotional practices, but from the perspectives of different demographic group samples. The factors identified in Study 3 were generally consistent with the themes of teacher social-emotional practices found in past studies conducted by Chia (2014), Harvey et al. (2012) and Han (2016).

As indicated previously, items from the TSEP-T loaded onto five factors. These were: *relational philosophy, social-emotional acceptance and regulation, interpersonal approach, social-*

emotional support and *personable.* The factors can be seen to encompass the significant areas of teachers' social-emotional practices. For example, items under the factor *social-emotional acceptance and regulation* could be classified into three concepts: teachers' acceptance to students' emotions, teachers' regulation of their own emotions and also students' emotions and teachers' encouragement of students in their learning. The identification of teachers' acceptance to students' emotions supports the factor "emotional student-acceptance" found in Harvey et al.'s (2012) study. Moreover, the concept of emotion regulation resonates strongly with past studies identifying the practice teachers' emotion regulation in the classroom (Han, 2016; Harvey et al., 2012). Han's (2016) study, which was conducted with students in South Korea, also found the concept of teachers' own emotion regulation in "classroom and emotion management" factor. In the same way, Harvey et al. (2012), who conducted a study with teachers in New Zealand, also found that teachers' abilities to regulate their emotions to be attributes for social-emotional practice.

Items under the factor *interpersonal approach* represented teachers' effort to build close and positive teacher-student relationships. Previous studies have presented this similar factor although in different names (Chia, 2014; Han, 2016; Harvey et al., 2012). Harvey et al. (2012) presented this concept as two separate factors: "emotional relationship" and "emotional availability". Chia (2014) called the conception of teachers' attempts to maintain interpersonal relationships with students by this ability to be "caring and relating", while Han (2016) named it "relationship-building". Furthermore, items under the factor *personable,* which explained the teachers' attributes that support students' learning, aligns with the "personable/affective tone" factor presented in Chia's (2014) study.

Meanwhile, eight factors established from TSEP-S were: *prioritising learning; models and regulates; social-emotional support; interpersonal approach; guiding relationships; thoughtfulness; gentleness;* and *reinforcement-focused*. The item under the *prioritising learning* factor related to the teachers' strategies and efforts that explicitly addressed students' learning which is consistent with a factor that emerged in Han's (2016) study referred to as "engaged attitude to teaching". However, as the TSEP-S items arose from primary school students' perspectives, the items under *prioritising learning* reflected teachers' overt teaching behaviours. On the other hand, the items used in Han's (2016) study were drawn from Harvey and colleagues' (2003, 2004) studies which were generated from interviews conducted with students, teachers and examplar teachers, a focus group with educational experts and a

comprehensive search of the classroom emotional environment literature, the items were not only covered overt behaviours but also teachers' attitude to teaching.

Items contained within the *interpersonal approach* factor represented teachers' explicit behaviours to establish warm and close relationships with their students. This concept was identical with "interpersonal approach" factor constructed by teachers from TSEP-T. As mentioned in the previous section, Han (2016) named this notion as "relationship-building", Chia (2014) called it as "caring and relating", while Harvey et al.'s (2012) study have presented the same concept in two separate factors: "emotional relationship" and "emotional availability". In addition, items under *guiding relationships* factor which described teachers' action to establish the classroom rules and boundaries have been presented in some previous studies. Han (2016) named this concept as "classroom and emotion management", Chia (2014) called it as "consequence management/limit setting", while Harvey et al. (2012) labelled it as "emotional boundaries".

Table 7.16 presents the key themes of teachers' social-emotional practices found across the four studies as shown in the title of Table 7.16. To provide a clearer identification of findings, each identified theme (factor or hotspot) is placed under a "broad theme". These factors/hotspots were considered to derive the broad themes.

While the "interpersonal approach" factor found in Study 3 was identified in each of the previous studies (Chia, 2014; Harvey et al. 2012; Han, 2016), although labelled differently, the "relationship" element was consistent in Indonesia, New Zealand, German, South Korea and Singapore classrooms. Similarly, the "philosophy/attitude" theme was also found across (Chia, 2014; Harvey et al. 2012; Han, 2016). While all the teachers from various countries had philosophical beliefs about teaching, these were different across cultures. The consistency of some themes across different cultural contexts suggests some elements of teachers' social-emotional practices may generalise across cultural groups.

One interesting finding is that the "coaching" theme was found in Chia's (2014), Harvey et al.'s (2012) and Han's (2016) studies, but in Study 3, the teachers tend to accept students' emotions and to regulate their behaviours rather than coach them. This result is likely to be related to the fact that Chia (2014), Harvey et al. (2012) and Han (2016) used similar items while the items in Study 3 were developed from a qualitative study in Indonesia embedded in an Indonesian cultural context. Another possible explanation for this is that in Study 3, items related to "coaching" (e.g. *Teacher talks through problems students are facing, Teacher talks*

about feelings with students, Teacher asks sad student to talk with him/her) are interwoven into some other factors. Both teachers and students did not separate these kinds of behaviours into one specific factor.

Table 7. 16.

A Comparison of Teachers' Social-Emotional Practices Themes Identified in Current Study and Past Relevant Studies

Broad Themes	Study 3 (Teachers' perspectives)	Study 3 (Students' perspectives)	Sharon, 2016	Chia, 2014	Harvey et al., 2012
Philosophy / attitude	Relational philosophy		Engaged attitude to teaching	Emotional attitude	Emotional philosophy; emotional attitude
Relationship	Interpersonal approach; Personable	Interpersonal approach; Thoughtfulness; Gentleness	Relationship-building	Personable/ Affective tone; Caring and relating; Supportive relationships/ Interpersonal skills	Emotional relationship; Emotional availability; Student-student support
Acceptance	Social-emotional acceptance and regulation				Emotional self-acceptance; Emotional student-acceptance
Emotion regulation					Emotion regulation
Boundaries		Models and regulates; Guiding relationships	Classroom and emotion management	Emotional boundaries; Consequence management/ limit setting	Emotional boundaries
Support	Social-emotional support	Social-emotional support; Reinforcement-focused			
Learning		Prioritising learning			
Coaching			Social-emotional coaching	Emotion coaching	Emotion coaching
Emotional contagion/ transference			Emotion transference	Emotional contagion	

Similarly, items under the "coaching" theme in Chia's (2014), Harvey et al.'s (2012) and Han's (2016) studies showed that teachers tended to talk about emotions with students (e.g. *Teacher assists students to think about emotional situation so as to make things better next time, Teacher makes us aware of how we are managing emotion, Teacher teaches us how to express our emotions with words).* Emotional situations were discussed openly and even used as a learning opportunity. On the other hand, Javanese children are expected to be quiet, obedient and emotionally reserved (Koentjaraningrat, 1985). Moreover, social scientists have described Javanese society and customs in ways that emphasis self-control and suppression of negative emotions such as anger and sadness. Neils Mulder (1989) pointed out that Javanese children are socialised to feel shame as a Ms of fostering self-control, conformity and conflict or confrontation-avoidance. Williams (1991) argued that Javanese parents teach children that empathising, helping and sharing with others are substantial values. It is understandable, therefore, that the teachers in Study 3 used cultural fit strategies to coach their students' emotions (e.g. *Teacher calms an emotional student down, Teacher encourages students to forgive their friend, Teacher embraces sad student*).

In addition, a factor or hotspot relating to emotion contagion or transference was found by Chia (2014) and Han (2016), but not in Study 3. However, Study 3 found that students' perceptions of their teachers were closely linked to affect-related themes such as patience, kindness, fairness, thoughtfulness and gentleness. Even though the students could not detect their teachers' intrapersonal processes, they accurately appraised their teachers' emotion signals. Items related to students' appraisal of their teachers' emotion signals (e.g., *Teacher is slow to anger, Teacher accepts students' feeling, Teacher accepts students' mistake)* interwove into other factors. This finding showed that in general, the students participating in Study 3 were likely to be aware of their teachers' emotions when these emotions influence their feelings. These results are consistent with Hatfield et al. (1993) who found that emotions are contagious. When emotions are expressed by one individual they will likely also be expressed by another person who is engaged in a social interaction. In a like manner, Mottet and Beebe (2000) found that students' emotional responses are positively related to the perceived emotional responses of their teacher.

7.7.2 Teachers' Styles

Five teacher styles were identified based on the teachers' ratings, namely *Disengaged, Supportive and Nurturing, Accepting of Students but Passive, Indifferent, Minimize Emotion* and

Affable, Low in Passion. Ten teacher styles were established based on students' rating, i.e., *Kind but Distant, Structured - Encouraging, Indifferent, Gentle but Inattentive, Empathetic, Structured – Unresponsive, Disengaged, Learning-focused – Disorganised, Collaborative but Firm* and *Friendly but Uninvolved.* Considerable similarities and differences were observed among these teacher and student rated styles. No styles scored consistently high across all factors, indicating that teachers were probably had a unique interaction style with students, regardless of their social-emotional competency.

Furthermore, styles representing subgroups of teachers with similar patterns of behaviours and subgroups of students who reported the same pattern of their teachers' behaviours were identified in Study 3 (see Table 7.17). Interestingly, 35% of teachers were in the "Supportive and Nurturing" group which meant that they gave a fairly good appraisal of themselves and did not have extreme scores for any factor. More specifically, they valued themselves as being supportive to students' needs, held strong beliefs about teaching, were accepting of students' emotions and believed they developed close bonds with their students. The other 65% of the teachers perceived themselves to be teachers with particular strengths and weaknesses. By contrast, only 16% of students gave similar appraisal. Students taught by teachers with a "Structured, Encouraging" style reported that their teachers were focussed on creating safe classroom climate, motivating, establishing close relationship and being generous. Only 8% of student participants gave zero to high negative values on every factor for their teachers. Students in this "Disengaged" style perceived their teachers as not having a close relationship with students, not showing appropriate behaviours as a role-model, not focusing on learning.

Table 7. 17.

Summary of styles from teachers' and students' perspectives

Main Attribute	**Teacher Style (Teachers' Perspective)**	**Teacher Style (Students' Perspective)**
Supportive	Supportive and nurturing	Structured, encouraging
Accepting	Accepting of students but passive	Empathetic
Friendly, kind	Affable, low passion	Friendly but uninvolved Kind but distant
Indifferent	Indifferent, minimise emotion	Indifferent
Disengaged	Disengaged	Disengaged
Inattentive, unresponsive	-	Gentle but inattentive Structured, unresponsive
Others	-	Learning-focused, disorganised Collaborative but firm

Styles of teacher-reported Indonesian teacher behaviours were compared with styles similarly drawn by Harvey and colleagues (2012), while styles of student-reported teacher behaviours were compared with styles from Chia's (2014) and Han's (2016) studies through eyeballing. In contrast to factors, styles did not appear to precisely align across studies. This suggests that although there may be key universal themes of teacher social-emotional practices, the pattern of teachers' behaviours in these practices are more varied. In addition, the results of this study suggest wide variability in the teachers' styles by gender, age and teaching experience. There was no clear pattern between gender, age and teaching experience and the teachers' style. A possible explanation for this variance might be that some teachers naturally have more developed social-emotional skills respective of their teacher training.

This present study also sought answers to how teachers' social-emotional practices were associated with student-teacher relationship, students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing. Regarding student-teacher relationships, a positive relationship was identified as greatest for teachers in the *Affable, Low in Passion* and *Supportive and Nurturing* styles. Both styles were characterised by teachers' availability and support. This result may be explained by the fact that attachment theory has provided the strongest inspiration for work on teachers' relationships with students, especially during the preschool and primary school years (Pianta, 1999; Wentzel, 2009). According to extended attachment theory, the teacher-student relationships could be characterised by the degree of involvement between the teacher and child and by the positive or negative emotional quality of that involvement (Pianta, 1994; Pianta, Steinberg, & Rollins, 1995). A positive teacher-student relationship is also characterised by high degrees of warmth and high trust and low negativity (Birch & Ladd, 1998; Pianta, 1999). These findings reflect Fischer and Manstead's (2008) notion of the social functions of emotions. Affable, supportive and nurturing teachers tend to be able to create and maintain close relationships with their students. On the other hand, disengaged teachers are likely to have distant relationships with their students.

Researchers have linked teachers' characteristic with the quality of their teacher-student relationships. Primary teachers' levels of stress and negative affect predicted the number of students with whom they had negative relationships (Yoon, 2002). Yoon identified that teachers who were stressed were more likely to display inappropriate negative affect, such as anger and hostility, thereby creating an adversarial attitude with students. In addition, immediacy behaviours reduce perceptions of distance, which facilitates communication between students and teachers (Frymier & Houser, 2000).

Study 3 identified that students' feelings of connectedness with their teacher, school and peers were greatest for those students in the *Structured, encouraging* style. This finding is consistent with that of Hallinan (2008) who also found that teachers' support their students by caring about them and by respecting and praising them, which served to increase students' attachment to school. In a like manner, Klem and Connell's (2004) study showed that students who perceived teachers to be creating a caring, and creating a well-structured learning environment in which expectations were high, clear, and fair, were more likely to report engagement in school. Furthermore, in a well-structured classroom, students were encouraged to engage in behaviours that the teacher valued and were provided with clear behavioural and academic expectations (Emmer & Stough, 2001). When activities in the classroom are well managed, students have more time to interact with their teachers and friends, and may be better able to foster connectedness with their teacher, peers and school.

Lastly, Study 3 found that feelings of wellbeing were greatest for those students in the *Structured, encouraging* style. This result is consistent with Van Petegem et al. (2008) who found that teachers who are viewed by their students as teachers who offer structure while allowing a degree of latitude and within a stimulating environment appear to exert a positive influence on student wellbeing. Among the most influential factors to students' wellbeing is atmosphere at school, contacts with teachers, involvement in class and at school, school regulations and infrastructure were among the most influential factors to students' wellbeing (Engels, Aelterman, Petegem, & Schepens, 2004).

7.7.3 Overcoming Limitations of Study 3

Several limitations of Study 3 may have influenced the outcomes and/or applicability of findings. Firstly, even though the sample size is appropriate in forming factors and organizing styles, it is not a representative sample of the Indonesian population. Thus, interpretation of results should take account of this limitation. Further, the 90 teachers were distributed across five different styles while 333 students were dispersed across 10 styles, and the smallest style size was 12 and 15 respectively. Consequently, a goal of future research should be the replication of this study with a larger and more diverse sample, especially for the teachers, so as to validate their response patterns and make more accurate generalisations in an Indonesian context. In addition, the 333 students participating in this study were from only 54 classrooms. Accordingly, teachers' self-evaluation and students' evaluation of their teachers' social-emotional practices were not robust enough for statistical analysis. In spite of its

limitations, the study certainly adds to our understanding that some teachers' social-emotional practices such as interpersonal relationships, emotional awareness and behavioural guidelines are likely to transfer across culture – albeit manifesting differently according to cultural expectations. Further research should be undertaken to compare teachers' self-assessment and students' experiences of their teachers' social-emotional practices.

Secondly, because the nature of responses was subjective, this can create misrepresentations in the data such as trying to give the correct response, or uncertainty about the response due to the participants' current emotional state at the data collection time. There may also be incongruence between what the participant says they do and what they really do because of a lack of self-awareness, practical desirability, and/or impression management. Attempts were made to minimise distortions in the results due to these possibility subjective responses. These attempts included clear and less ambiguous items development process and anonymity of participation. The use of a conceptual model to "smear out" any inherent noise by viewing participant responses through an objective lens (Harvey, Marwick, Baken, Bimler, & Dickson, 2017; Kirkland & Bimler, 1996) was important to minimise these limitations. 'Smearing out' involves averaging participant weighted ratings across several proximal items in the combined solution, and using this overall average rank in the analysis. Through this procedure, the participants' subjective reports could be observed through an objective lens to reduce the error inherent in subjective response (Kirkland & Bimler, 1996). Nevertheless, as subjectivity can never be fully removed, this presents an opportunity for future research.

7.8 Summary

The first aim of Study 3 was to evaluate and profile the individual or idiosyncratic profiles of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices. Based on teachers' self-evaluation, their social-emotional practices can be organised into five styles, while based on students' perspectives, teachers' social-emotional practices can be organised into 10 styles. These styles support the notion that teachers are likely to have different social-emotional styles, with some tentative evidence linking these to gender, age and teaching experience. The diversity of characteristics highlights that teachers are socially and emotionally different and are likely to emphasize different basic areas in their teaching practice. It is important to acknowledge these differences and to further investigate teachers' social-emotional practice to get a deeper understanding of their impact on learning in the classroom emotional environment.

The second aim of Study 3 was to identify the relationships between teachers' social-emotional practices and teacher- student relationships, students' sense of connectedness and wellbeing. Results of Study 3 found that teachers' social-emotional practices shaped the closeness of student-teacher relationships, as well as students' sense of connectedness to their teacher and their feelings of wellbeing.

The following chapter presents the final discussion and conclusions to bring together the findings from all three studies. Implications are considered for stakeholders responsible for the development of Indonesian teachers' education and professional development. New research initiatives building on the limitations of Study 3 are also identified to extend our understanding of the themes emergent in my three studies.

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Chapter Eight
Final Discussion and Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

One of the advantages of collecting data from different sources is the ability to offer insight into different aspects of the same phenomenon. This three-phase mixed-methods study has provided insights into the nature of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices in a classroom setting and captured the associations with teachers' relationships with students, students' sense of connectedness and well-being. The analysis offered in the previous three chapters presented new understandings of the role played by of emotions in Indonesian students' classroom experiences through models, maps and profiles. A rich portrayal of Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional practices has been provided.

This chapter begins by presenting an integration of the main findings across the three studies (Section 8.2), which brings together the overall conclusions. A proposed model of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices is introduced in Section 8.3. Findings from each aspect of the three studies are discussed related to other similar studies to establish links and points of similarities and differences in relation to teachers' social-emotional practices (Section 8.4). Consideration is then given to the knowledge contributions made by this study (Section 8.5). Future research suggestion and implications for educational practice and policy are formulated (Section 8.6 and 8.7). Finally, a short reflexive account is provided regarding my personal research journey (Section 8.8).

8.2 Integration of Findings

The integration of findings from each of the qualitative and quantitative phases seeks to uncover new Mings that are not identifiable when the findings remain separate. The approach of bringing together common themes from different perspectives is an effective way to ensure the meta-inferences are richer than simply the sum of the qualitative and quantitative results (Bryman, 2006; Morgan, 1998). Accordingly, this integration brings together different facets of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices to build a richer picture than would not otherwise be possible.

As previously mentioned in Chapter 3, the findings were integrated using a "following a thread" procedure (Cronin et al., 2008; Moran-Ellis et al., 2006). This procedure requires recognition of the major findings from each study. Study 1 began with the intention to identify teachers' social-emotional practices within Indonesian primary school classroom. In this study, four global themes of teachers' social-emotional practices were identified: relational philosophy, nurturing, developing classroom harmony and regulating emotions.

The main goal of Study 2 was to investigate the underlying structure of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices in their classroom. This second study successfully developed two lists of teachers' social-emotional practices, one from the teachers' perspectives (TSEP-T) and the other one from the students' perspectives (TSEP-S). TSEP-T was generated from teacher interviews and focus group discussions, while TSEP-S was produced from the student focus group discussions conducted in Study 1. A stable map specifying the teachers' social-emotional practices was thus established. Using Hierarchical Cluster Analysis (HCA), the dendrogram showed nine preliminary clusters for TSEP-T and seven preliminary clusters for TSEP-S (see Table 8.1).

Table 8. 1.

Summary of clusters generated from TSEP-T and TSEP-S

	Cluster generated from TSEP-T		**Cluster generated from TSEP-S**
1.	Behaviour management	1.	Behaviour management
2.	Effective teaching	2.	Prioritising learning
3.	Guiding relationships	3.	Guiding relationships
4.	Relationship building	4.	Relationship building
5.	Teachers' positive attribute	5.	Teachers' positive attribute
6.	Social-emotional support	6.	Caring
7.	Emotion regulation	7.	Motivation and reinforcement-focused
8.	Religiosity		
9.	Social-emotional acceptance		

Examining the item clustering of TSEP-T at the extremes of the three dimensions allowing interpretation of those dimensions in the following divisions: d1) *verbal-direct instruction* to *sensitivity to timing/context,* d2) *vertical relationship (with God)* to *horizontal relationship (with persons)* and d3) *valuing teaching* to *valuing students.* While for TSEP-S, the items aligning along three latent dimensions which are identified as d1) *reinforcement focused* to *student autonomy,* d2) *supporting students' academic learning* to *supporting students in an emotional situation* and d3) *student-student relationships* to *teacher-student relationships.*

Study 3 had two objectives. The first was to establish Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices as observed by teachers and by students. The second objective was to establish the association between factors and styles with the teachers' evaluation of their relationships with students as well as the students' reported feelings of connectedness with their teachers, peers, school and their feelings of wellbeing.

Analysis of the teachers' self-rating of their social-emotional behaviours and student-rating of their homeroom teachers' social-emotional behaviours led to the categorisation of salient teacher social-emotional practices (see Table 8.2). Also identified in this third study were the styles representing subgroups of teachers with similar patterns of behaviours and subgroups of students who reported the same patterns of their teachers' behaviours (see Table 8.3).

Table 8. 2.

Summary of factors from TSEP-T and TSEP-S

Factor names from TSEP-T	Factor names from TSEP-S
1. Interpersonal approach	1. Interpersonal approach
2. Social-emotional support	2. Social-emotional support
3. Social-emotional acceptance and regulation	3. Models and regulates
4. Personable	4. Thoughtfulness
5. Relational philosophy	5. Gentleness
	6. Guiding relationships
	7. Reinforcement-focused
	8. Prioritising learning

Table 8. 3.

Summary of styles from teachers' and students' perspectives

Teacher Profile (Teachers' Perspective)	Teacher Profile (Students' Perspective)
1. Supportive and nurturing	1. Structured, encouraging
2. Accepting of students but passive	2. Empathetic
3. Affable but aloof, low passion	3. Friendly but uninvolved
4. Indifferent, minimize emotion	4. Indifferent
5. Disengaged	5. Disengaged
	6. Kind but distant
	7. Gentle but inattentive
	8. Structured, unresponsive
	9. Learning-focused, disorganized
	10. Collaborative but firm

Furthermore, Study 3 delineated the associations between teachers' social-emotional practices and student-teacher relationships, students' sense of connectedness with school, teachers and peers and their sense of wellbeing. Teachers' availability and closeness to students were shown to be important elements to create a warm relationship between the teacher and student, while teachers' abilities to create clear classroom boundaries and also to show support and encouragement were seen to be essential for students' connectedness with teachers and their wellbeing.

Findings from these three studies are now brought together in order to make conclusions about teachers' social-emotional practices. As aforementioned, four global themes of teachers' social-emotional practices were identified in Study 1. The dendrogram clusters emerging from Study 2 can be related to these same four themes (see Table 8.4). Consistent with findings from the qualitative study were themes from TSEP-T such as religiosity, guiding relationships and emotion regulation, and from TSEP-S such as caring, guiding relationships and teachers' positive attributes. In addition to the differences in items, teachers' religiosity and emotion regulation were clusters not identified by students. In addition, one underlying concept of teachers' social-emotional practices – *emotional relationship* - was not identified in Study 1, yet found in Study 2.

Table 8.4.

Comparison of Study 1 and Study 2 Findings

Study 1		Study 2			
Global Themes	**Organising Themes**	**Dendrogram**		**Cluster**	
		TSEP-T	**TSEP-S**	**TSEP-T**	**TSEP-S**
Relational philosophy	Religious values	Religiosity		Religious understanding of work	
	Social-emotional values			Emotional philosophy Valuing teaching	
Nurturing	Care Patience	Social-emotional support; Effective teaching	Caring; Prioritising learning; Motivation and reinforcement focused	Sensitivity to timing/context; Supporting students' social-emotional development; Going beyond; Helping; Reward focused; Personal generosity; Affection; Pedagogical strategies to promote learning; Encouragement	Reinforcement focused; Attention to a sick student; Personal generosity; Affection; Gentleness; Patience; Pedagogical strategies to promote learning; Responsiveness to students' emotion in learning; Study encouragement; Motivation

(continued)

Table 8.4. (continued)

Comparison of Study 1 and Study 2 Findings

Study 1		Study 2			
Global Themes	**Organising Themes**	**Dendrogram**		**Cluster**	
		TSEP-T	**TSEP-S**	**TSEP-T**	**TSEP-S**
Developing classroom harmony	Guiding relationships	Behaviour management; Guiding relationships	Behaviour management; Guiding relationships	Interpersonal guidelines	Behaviour management; Setting boundaries; Fostering peer support; Supporting collaboration; Supporting students' social-emotional development
	Positive interpersonal approach	Teachers' positive attribute	Teachers' positive attribute; Relationship building	Openness; Warmth; Trust	Familiarity; Openness; Integrity; Personable; Fairness; Equitable
Regulating emotions	Religious strategies General strategies	Emotion regulation		Emotion regulation Religious coping strategies	
		Relationship building; Social-emotional acceptance;	Relationship building	Teacher-student connection; Focus on students as individuals; Emotional acceptance and availability	Teacher-student communication; Emotional availability; Acceptance and forgiveness

Likewise, factors emerging from Study 3, namely 'relational philosophy' and 'interpersonal approach' aligned with findings from Study 1 (see Table 8.5). Other factors such as 'social-emotional support' and 'social-emotional acceptance and regulation', even though labelled differently, shared similar concepts with some of the organising themes developed in Study 1. In addition, the themes pertaining to 'relational philosophy' and 'emotions regulation' did not arise as factors in students' rating.

Table 8. 5.

Comparison of Study 1 and Study 3 Findings

Study 1		**Study 3**	
Global Themes	**Organising Themes**	**Factors (TSEP-T)**	**Factors (TSEP-S)**
Relational philosophy	Religious values Social-emotional values	Relational philosophy	
Nurturing	Care Patience	Personable; Social-emotional support; Social-emotional acceptance and regulation[1]	Social-emotional support; Thoughtfulness; Gentleness; Prioritising learning; Reinforcement focused
Developing classroom harmony	Guiding relationships Positive interpersonal approach	Social-emotional acceptance and regulation[1] Interpersonal approach	Models and regulates; Guiding relationships Interpersonal approach
Regulating emotions	Religious strategies General strategies	Social-emotional acceptance and regulation[1]	

[1]some items in "social-emotional acceptance and regulation" overlap with "nurturing", "guiding relationships" and "regulating emotions"

Further analysis across the three data sets indicates the emergence of two major dimensions of teachers' social-emotional practices: nurturing and developing classroom harmony. Furthermore, emotional relationships emerging from dendrograms, clusters and dimensions of TSEP-T and TSEP-S, formed an additional dimension of teachers' social-emotional practices. The *nurturing* dimension of teachers' social-emotional practices, included similar

perspectives between teachers and students such as support, encouragement and pedagogical strategies to promote learning. The *classroom harmony* dimension saw both teachers and students agree that a balance was required between teachers ensuring clear boundaries and maintaining an interpersonal approach. The *emotional relationship* dimension saw both teachers and students share features such as relationship building, acceptance, teacher-student connection and communication.

Two features of teachers' social-emotional practices, *relational philosophy* and *emotion regulations* only appeared from the teachers' perspectives; it did not feature from the students' perspectives. Possible explanations for this might be that primary aged students were unable to observe or surmise about their teachers' relational philosophies and emotion regulation as these are internal individual processes to the teachers. There are, however, other possible explanations. The TSEP-S items were built from the students' perspectives instead of from the teachers' perspectives, and therefore only reflected the teachers' behaviours affected how students' feelings. The teachers' behaviours representing relational philosophies and emotion regulation manifested in the TSEP-T items did not have a direct influence on students, and so, were not listed in TSEP-S items.

As the cross-study analysis proceeded, new understandings of the complex nature of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices were revealed. Findings from Studies 2 and 3 highlighted important similarities and differences compared to the four global themes found in Study 1 (i.e., living a relational philosophy, engaging in a nurturing manner, regulating emotion and developing classroom harmony). The consistent appearance of emotional relationships remained across the three studies suggesting that this had become a key dimension. Therefore, five key dimensions of teachers' social-emotional practices were established. These dimensions are *relational philosophy, emotion regulation, emotional relationship, nurturing* and *classroom harmony.* These five dimensions are interrelated. For example, emotional relationship may be evident in teachers' relational philosophies and/or their nurturing interactions. Additionally, teachers' emotion regulation abilities are interconnected with classroom harmony and/or relational philosophy.

The integrated findings also provide evidence that teachers' social-emotional practices are linked to three different sociocultural lenses: the teachers themselves (personal), relations between the teacher and individual students (interpersonal) and the cultural context within which teachers teach (cultural-institutional lens) (Rogoff, 1998, 2003). These analytic lenses reveal the mutually constituting sociocultural context that helps to explain the complexity of

Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices. Holding a personal lens of the Indonesian teachers' practice revealed their identity as teachers, their attitudes and behaviours to teach in ways that established positive emotional relationships with their students as well as in creating a positive emotional climate in their classrooms. These Indonesian teachers knew who they were (intrapersonal skills) and knew how to support their students' learning. They were also aware of their beliefs, motivations and emotions. Social-emotionally competent teachers also hold strong relational philosophies and abilities, and demonstrated emotion regulation.

Holding an interpersonal lens revealed the teachers' abilities to develop strong and enduring connections with their students. Teachers who successfully established strong bonds with their students emphasised the significance of their emotional relationships with students. Furthermore, these Indonesian teachers recognised the importance of nurturing students' emotions through the teaching and learning processes. Finally, holding an institutional-cultural lens revealed the impact of the Indonesian teachers' social and cultural values such as their religious values and the importance of harmony. These teachers upheld a culture of harmony to support students' academic as well as social and emotional development.

8.3 Indonesian Teachers' Social-Emotional Practice Model

In light of the aforementioned dimensions, 'The Teachers' Social-Emotional Practices' model (see Figure 8.1) has been developed as a visual representation of the studies' conclusions. The Indonesian national flower[13], jasmine was chosen to explain the relationships between the five key dimensions of teachers' social-emotional practice. Jasmine is easy to cultivate in Indonesia and flowers throughout the year. Its flower is tiny - around 2.5 cm in diameter and it has a smooth yet unique scent. However, despite its small size and soft aroma, jasmine, as the Indonesian national flower to represents *simplicity, sincerity, purity* and *grace of God*. In addition, jasmine is considered to be an *important* flower. For example, in Indonesian weddings, jasmine is used to adorn the bride's hair and as a fragrance for the wedding venue.

[13] Based on the President Decree 4/1993, there are three kind of flowers inaugurated as Indonesian floral emblems. Indonesian floral emblems are Indonesian endemic flora that represent Indonesia and describe Indonesian Biodiversity. The Indonesian floral emblems are: *Jasminum sambac* (jasmine/*melati)* as the national flower, *Phalaenopsis amabilis* (moon orchid/*anggrek bulan)* as the flower of charm and *Rafflesia arnoldii* as rare flower.

Similarly, the jasmine flower is used to represent the essence of Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional practices. Primary teaching in Indonesia is considered by some to be uncomplicated work, especially when compared to teaching at higher levels education. However, the present study strengthens the idea that beneath any so-called *simplicity,* primary school education is complex and indeed *essential* as a foundation for the next educational level. It is an investment in children's lives. This study also confirmed that to be a caring and effective primary school teacher, it involves a *sincere* attitude. Furthermore, in an Indonesian context, *religiosity* cannot be separated from the teaching and learning activities.

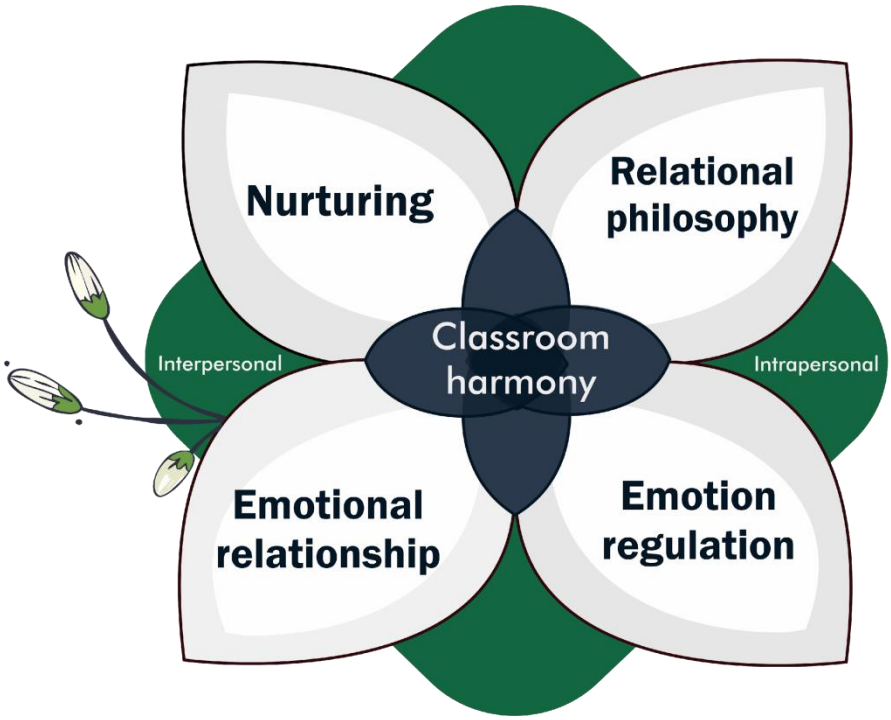

Figure 8. 1. The proposed jasmine model of teachers' social-emotional practices

This proposed model illustrates the five dimensions of teachers' social-emotional practices, namely *relational philosophy, emotion regulation, nurturing, emotional relationship* and *classroom harmony*. The jasmine is illustrated as having four petals which represent the first four dimensions of teachers' social-emotional practices, while *classroom harmony* is positioned at the centre of the flower linking the other four dimensions. The five dimensions are illustrated as interrelated to show that they do not have discrete boundaries. They are also superimposed onto a diamond shape to symbolise that each dimension is not autonomous,

rather interconnected to each other. On one side of the model is the *intrapersonal* aspect, which includes *relational philosophy* and *emotion regulation.* On the opposite side is the *interpersonal* aspect, comprising of *emotional relationships* and *nurturing others.* Furthermore, the jasmine in this proposed model is exemplified as a blooming jasmine to emphasise that a jasmine has its topmost fragrance when it blooms. The sweet smell of jasmine gives a special aroma to the surrounding area. Similarly, when a teacher demonstrates the five dimensions of social-emotional practices, the positive emotions are contagious and impact students' emotional wellbeing and sense of connectedness at school.

8.4 Final Discussion

The purpose of the three studies was to explore the complexity of Indonesian primary school teachers' social-emotional practices. This final discussion will explore the strongest elements within the five dimensional model: i) the influence of teachers' religious beliefs (relational philosophy), ii) the importance of teachers' self-control (emotion regulation), iii) the caring heart of a teacher (nurturing), iv) emotional connections between students and teachers (emotional relationships) and v) harmony as an ideal classroom climate (classroom harmony).

8.4.1 The influence of teachers' religious beliefs

The three studies showed that the Indonesian teachers' relational philosophies are a critical dimension of their intrapersonal social-emotional practice; indeed it is foundational to their practice and reflected in their attitudes towards teaching and learning. Previous studies have demonstrated that a teachers' philosophy underpins their work, acting as a filter for the information and experience that teachers attend to - guiding their actions (e.g., Fives & Buehl, 2012; Gill & Fives, 2015). Furthermore, this study confirms that a teachers' philosophy – regardless of the nature of that philosophy is associated with beliefs about self, students, the learning environment and possible teaching approaches (Fives & Buehl, 2012). The teachers' philosophies were relational as opposed to transactional due to the responsive nature of their interactions with students within a climate of reciprocity.

Religious values were at the core of these Indonesian teachers' relational philosophies. This finding may be explained by the fact that teachers' philosophies are embedded within their larger context; they can not be separated from it (Mansour, 2009). Mansour noted that teachers' philosophies drawn from their knowledge-based, their life experiences and their

social and cultural environment. For many Indonesians, religion is not merely a belief system; it is a way of life an essential part of their everyday lives. The teachers participating in my study showed that religion shaped their beliefs about their work and guided their teaching actions.

The actions guided by teachers' religious values were demonstrated by activities such as praying for students or remembering God when faced with a negative situation. These practices were also shown by teaching the students about the reciprocal relationship between science and religion. The teachers did not separate religious and secular knowledge as they believed that all knowledge comes from God and a human's ability to understand knowledge is limited. Consistent with the literature, this study found that the teachers did not see a conflict between science and religion (Katz, 2002). Instead, their religious values *informed* their beliefs about the nature of science and its purpose (Mansour, 2011). These beliefs provide further evidence of the mutually constituting nature of Indonesian teachers' religious values and their teaching philosophies and actions.

Furthermore, this study found that teachers' religious values shaped their personal relationship with God, and at the same time, influenced their connection with their students. In Islamic teaching, religious behaviour is divided into the relationship with God *(hablumminallah)* and the relationship with other human beings and their natural surroundings *(hablumminannas)* (Aisyah, 2016; Sabiq, 2012). Likewise, Christians believe that the greatest commandment is to love God and to love others (Matthew 22: 35-40 New International Version). Particularly for Javanese people, they believe that their spiritual experiences help them to establish a close relationship with God, the world and other people (Herawati, 2012). Consistent with that, these findings emphasise the importance of balancing teachers' vertical connection (with God) and with their horizontal connection (with people). They believed that to be connected with God is only meaningful when they maintain positive connections with others – including their students.

The strong relationship between religion and teachers' philosophies may partly be explained by the fact that religious beliefs significantly shape the socialisation processes. Family life has a particularly powerful influence on the development of personal religiosity (Kim, McCullough, & Cicchetti, 2009; Spilka, Hood, Hunsberger, & Gorsuch, 2003). Islam, the major religion in Indonesia, stresses the importance of parents' roles in the religious education of children and young people (Taylor, 2006). So far, however, there has been little discussion about how Indonesian parents socialise religious values in their children. Even though my

study was set in public schools, many Indonesian parents send their children to a religion-affiliated school or take their children to mosques, churches or temples, indicating that Indonesian parents want to pass on their faith-based values to their children. Parental influence on religious identity was found higher than the influence of other socialisation agents (Fisherman, 2011). Thus, it is understandable that most Indonesians have a strong religious identity. In addition, Indonesian teachers, who believed that they were parents-in-loci for their students, also felt responsible to socialise universal religious-based values in their teaching practice.

While some researchers focus on parents' role in religious transmission, Kelley and De Graaf (1997) argued that the religious culture of a country has a significant influence on the beliefs of its citizens. In the case of Indonesia, the first principle of Indonesia's philosophical foundation called *Pancasila* is "belief in the one and only God". This philosophical foundation is woven throughout the national law and educational policy. For example, the goal of the Indonesian national education system as stated in Law 20/2003 is to develop each student's potential to become people with faith and piety towards God the Only One, sound morality, good health, knowledge, intelligence, creativity, independence and to become democratic and responsible citizens. This law validates my teacher participants' beliefs that it is their role to support not only students' academic but also their social, emotional and religious development.

8.4.2 The importance of teachers' self-control

Using a *personal* lens, the findings across the three studies showed that social-emotionally competent Indonesian teachers regulated their emotions during their teaching. As identified in Chapter Five, Six and Seven, the teachers used a range of both general and religious strategies to manage their emotions. Given that emotion regulation is a key component of two social-emotional competency models (Saarni, 1999; Salovey & Mayer, 1990), the notion of managing emotions has consistently been identified as a common characteristic among socially and emotionally competent teachers. For instance, Harvey and Evans' (2003) model of the classroom emotional climate and Jennings and Greenberg's (2009) concept of socially and emotionally competent teachers both incorporate the importance of emotion management. According to these researchers, socially and emotionally competent teachers understand when and how to regulate their emotions and subsequent behaviours even when emotionally aroused by the challenging conditions in a classroom.

In order to adapt their arousal, my participating teachers felt they needed to control themselves. They pointed out that self-control is an essential attribute of an effective teacher. Self-control was reflected by their ability to down-regulate negative emotions. These teachers believed that negative emotions should not be expressed in front of students as these would threaten the harmony of the learning climate. When they exercised self-control, they modified their response tendencies in a way that involved suppressing one goal to pursue another that was perceived to be more beneficial (McCullough & Willoughby, 2009). For example, when facing a student's challenging behaviour, a teacher in my study chose to pause for a while and recreate a better learning atmosphere. This finding aligns with research by Gong, Chai, Duan, Zhong, and Jiao (2013) who showed that managing emotional expressions helps teachers to be effective to decrease impacts of negative emotions on students' learning and to maintain a good emotional images. These conditions combine to foster a strong teacher-student relationship.

The teachers believed that self-control was a sign of maturity, and as a mature adult in the classroom, they needed to control their feelings and behaviours. These teachers' abilities to regulate or alter their behaviour, especially restraining their negative thoughts, emotions and impulses were considered to be a sign of high self-control. This finding further supports the general definition of self-control as an individual's capability to supersede and constrain socially unacceptable and undesirable impulses and to alter and regulate one's thoughts, emotions and behaviours (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1994; Tangney, Baumeister, & Boone, 2004). In a similar manner, Duckworth (2011) pointed out that self-controlled individuals are more adept than their impulsive counterparts at regulating their attentional, emotional and behavioural impulses to achieve long-term goals.

This study indicated that teachers with an ability to control their negative emotions had less conflict with their students. Thus far, researchers have not investigated teachers' self-control in much detail. However, some studies (e.g., Finkel & Campbell, 2001; Tangney et al., 2004) found that high self-control was correlated with better interpersonal relationships. Tangney et al. (2004) pointed out that poor self-control might lead to angry outbursts and aggressive behaviours which contribute directly to a disharmonious climate. In a like manner, Finkel and Campbell (2001) indicated that people with low self-control tend to act on the basis of their immediate self-interest rather than the wellbeing of relationships. These findings provide an explanation as to why teachers who were able to control their negative emotions had a few conflicts with their students – indeed had positive learning relationships.

The teachers also recognised that their emotions may influence their students' feelings. Previous studies have also demonstrated that students are aware of their teachers' emotions. Qualitative research has demonstrated that even at primary age, children are attentive of and actively observe emotion in interactions with their teachers (Andersen, Evans, & Harvey, 2012). In the study of Perry, VandeKamp, Mercer, and Nordby (2002), the primary school students reported that they were aware of their teacher's unhappiness when they were making mistakes. Similarly, Thomas and Montomery (1998) found that when teachers yelled, students felt a wide range of negative emotions that impaired their abilities to learn. They also felt small, hurt, guilty, sad, embarrassed and ashamed. Furthermore, the teachers in Thomas and Montomery's research argued that their abilities to regulate their own emotions had a positive association with students' emotions, which in turn influenced the classroom climate. These teachers understood that losing control over their negative emotions would negatively impact their students and their learning processes. This finding further supports findings from Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, and Vohs (2001) who found that negative emotions have a stronger impact and have more lasting consequences than positive emotions.

It is interesting to note that teachers participating in my study also socialised the importance of self-control and their abilities to down-regulate negative emotions to their students. While the carefully managed expression of anger in a western context is appropriate if it helps to clarify a situation (Eid & Diener, 2001), in collectivistic culture such as Indonesia, the expression of anger is less acceptable because it threatens authority and harmony within relationships (Miyake & Yamazaki, 1995). Furthermore, in Javanese society, self-control and suppression of anger are valued and are likely related to social-emotional competence (Eisenberg, Liew, & Pidada, 2001). In contrast, in a western culture, the ability to recognise and appropriately express emotions are signs of emotionally intelligent people (Bar-On, 1997).

In western schooling and familial settings, various strategies to promote children's social-emotional competence such as emotion coaching are implemented (Gottman, Katz, & Hooven, 1996; Rose, Gilbert, & McGuire-Snieckus, 2015). My study found that instead of demonstrating an emotional coaching strategy, teachers tend to practice a behavioural coaching strategy (Harvey, Evans, Hill, Henricksen, & Bimler, 2016). The behavioural coaching strategy began similarly to emotion coaching, in that teachers noticed students' emotions and implemented strategies to encourage their students to manage their emotions and resultant behaviours that presented in emotional situations. However, instead of assisting students to be aware of, label and the teacher validating their emotions, Indonesian teachers directly

coached students in the use coping behaviours. In the presence of emotional situations, Indonesian teachers directed students to be composed, to act kindly and to seek apologies. Therefore, instead of guiding students to verbalise their feelings and guiding the discussion through to problem resolution, these teachers directly taught appropriate behaviours to implement in the presence of emotions, but without direct reference to them. This finding also reflects those of Irene and Hendriati (2017) who also found that in emotional situations, Indonesian teachers have a tendency to straightforwardly help their students to resolve problems. Although this could be attributed to cultural differences, it could likewise be argued that the absence of emotion coaching in a classroom setting is due to differences in teachers' skillset when coaching their students' emotions. As previously mentioned in Chapter Two, Indonesian teachers do not receive training in their initial teacher education or in-service professional development aimed at developing teachers' or students' social and emotional skills. Harvey (2004) suggested that teachers' ability to coach their students' emotions is an important social-emotional practice, because it is believed to promote students' academic, social and emotional learning (Ministry of Education, 2017).

8.4.3 The caring heart of a teacher

The second interpersonal aspect of teachers' social-emotional practices identified across my three studies was their nurturing and caring manner toward others. As mentioned in Chapter 5, 6 and 7, the teachers demonstrated nurturing behaviours in a range of ways. Ki Hadjar Dewantara, the Father of Indonesian National Education, pointed out that the aim of education is to nurture and care for the intrinsic nature of students so that they can develop and reach their full potential. Dewantara (1977) spoke of a parable likening a teacher's role with that of a farmer. The farmer plants rice and by doing so can only support the growth of the rice. The farmer can fertilise the soil, nourish the plants, water the paddy fields and destroy the pests, but he/she cannot make the paddy grow into corn. Similarly, a teacher can support students' development, but they cannot change the God-given nature of their students. Instead of modifying a student's nature, a teacher can only guide improved attitudes and behaviours. Therefore, a teacher's role in Indonesia is to engage in a caring manner to nurture each child's full potential.

In Javanese, teachers' nurturing actions are called *ngemong*. Dewantara (1977) concluded that the best education methods for Indonesian children is the *among* system which means to nurture. The *among* system is a teaching approach based on *asah, asih* and *asuh*. Literally,

asah means to sharpen, or to support students' cognitive development. *Asih* means to love, by creating a caring learning situation. While *asuh* means fostering or guiding a student (Nuri, 2015; Wangid, 2009). Using this Javanese specific definition, socially-emotionally competent teachers take seriously their duty of care for each student (Suratman, 1983).

The integrated findings revealed teachers' emotional labour was to create what Nias (1999) called a "culture of care" in the classroom. The teachers participating in my study showed attempts to use "care" as a professional stance. These teachers engaged in efforts to control and to modify their negative emotions for the purpose of expressing caring for their students. Vogt (2002) noted that caring is an integral part of primary school teaching. In a like manner, Noddings (2012) highlighted that establishing an "ethic of care" needs to be a goal for all teachers. According to her, a teacher with a strong ethic of care is attentive, observant, listening, responding positively just as my social-emotionally competent teachers were.

The students in my study honoured their teachers' attentive responses to either their academic or personal issues. Feelings of wellbeing and connectedness with teachers were high for students who reported that their teachers were encouraging and empathetic. Students' responses showed the value of feeling cared for as a fundamental part of relationship building in the classroom (Noddings, 2012). Similarly, Alder (2002) found that students viewed caring relationships with teachers to be essential, arguing that teachers were seen to be caring when they took the time to get to know their students and were academically helpful.

The importance of caring was confirmed in the present study with my teacher participants' commitment to attend to their students' broad range of needs. To be able to show care, the teachers showed an ability to understand their students' thoughts and feelings. They showed attempts to know their students' backgrounds by listening to their concerns and visiting them at home. These teachers reported that by knowing their students, they could respond appropriately. J. H. James (2012) also who argued that "a true caring relationship depends on a teacher's ability to identify and meet students' needs and is affirmed by students' confirmation of that caring" (p. 166). Empathy or the ability to identify and sense another's thoughts and feelings (Walter, 2012; Zahavi & Overgaard, 2012) is an integral component of social-emotional competency (Saarni, 1999; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Furthermore, teachers' capacities for empathy contribute to their social and emotional competence (Stojiljković, Djigić, & Zlatković, 2012) and therefore their success as a teacher.

8.4.4 Emotional connection between students and teachers

This section considers the first interpersonal aspect of their social-emotional practices - emotional relationships. My study found that the Indonesian teachers and students recognised the vital importance of positive emotional relationships in the classroom to support learning and teaching. The teachers reported that their close emotional connections supported them to develop these relationships. The students also valued these connections in times when they could sit and talk with their teachers.

This emotional relationship strengthened when the teachers and students established meaningful connections and maintained personal communication about their lives in and beyond the classroom. These results reflect those of Fischer and Manstead (2008) who suggested that any relationship involves a degree of emotion and emotions may serve affiliative functions of emotion, because they enhance positive interactions, cooperation and trust. Previous studies have also demonstrated that teachers and students need to feel emotionally connected to each other (Watson & Battistich, 2006) in order to build a community of learners in the classroom (Sewell, 2006). Furthermore, Sewell's study indicated that teachers' commitment to develop emotional connections with their students was a way of showing care, respect and trust in their students.

The teachers' acceptance of students' different life experiences outside the classroom and wide-ranging emotions was essential to establishing meaningful emotional connections within the classroom. Examples of this acceptance included: accepting students' feelings and mistakes or forgiving them for their negative behaviours. The teachers, who believed that they were parents-in-loci for their students, accepted and cared for their students as unique individuals. A robust body of research shows that all children need a specific form of acceptance from parents and other attachment figures (e.g., Rohner & Khaleque, 2010; Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). In order to thrive, children need secure emotional attachments and can seek this from any source, including their teachers (Denham, 1998). Moreover, meaningful emotional connections can be a protective factor against adverse developmental outcomes for children at risk because of disadvantageous caregiving experiences, including insecure parent-child attachment (Lynch & Cicchetti, 1992; Pianta & Steinberg, 1992).

Still using an interpersonal lens, the teachers' emotional availability was also recognised as an important social-emotional quality to maintain teacher-student meaningful emotional

connections. The teachers and students participating in this study reported that to build these connections, teachers needed to be emotionally available. Example of teachers' availability included talking one-on-one with a distressed student or talking through a problem to find a solution. This study also revealed the association between teachers' emotional availability and students' sense of connectedness. The student participants reported lower feelings of connectedness with emotionally distant and detached teachers. Likewise, the disengaged teacher participants reported higher levels of conflict and lower closeness with their students. These findings align with those of Korthagen, Attema-Noordewier, and Zwart (2014) who argued that "being there" was an important element of good teacher-student relationships. Similarly, Epting, Zinn, Buskist, and Buskist (2004) found that "ideal" teachers are accessible to students.

The findings of this present study showed that the students' sense of their teachers' warmth and closeness correlated to their sense of wellbeing. By contrast, teachers' disengagement and emotional detachment correlated with low students' wellbeing. Van Petegem, Aelterman, Rosseel, and Creemers (2007) found an association between how students perceived their teachers' interpersonal behaviours and their wellbeing. They noted that students' wellbeing increased when they experienced positive emotional connections with their teachers. Similarly, Konu and Rimpelä (2002) in their School Wellbeing Model, divided wellbeing in the school context into four aspects: having, loving, being and health. Loving referred to a student's need to relate to other people, including their teachers. A positive teacher-student relationship, according to this model, has a crucial role to maintain students' wellbeing in school.

8.4.5 Harmony as the ideal emotional classroom climate

The last dimension of the Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices identified across the three studies was classroom harmony – which can be viewed through a cultural-institutional lens. Classroom harmony relates to an Indonesian educational concept proposed by Dewantara (1977). He noted that instead of command, discipline and order, the foundation of Indonesian education is a well-regulated and peaceful atmosphere, which he called *tata-tentrem*. This present study revealed that while a well-regulated classroom might be built by creating clear boundaries, but that without a positive interpersonal approach with their students, their teaching was not effective for learning. Therefore, demonstrating personable attitudes to their students such as being friendly, kind and humorous was believed by the

teachers to create a peaceful learning ambience – vital for a Javanese classroom. A balance between establishing clear boundaries and maintaining a positive interpersonal approach created a harmonious classroom climate which was seen as an ideal to support students' learning.

The teachers' abilities to create this balance by setting limits while also demonstrating an affectionate approach to their students mattered to their students' emotional experiences in the classroom. These results align with that of Mainhard, Oudman, Hornstra, Bosker, and Goetz (2018) who indicated that students' perceptions of their teacher agency (i.e., power or social influence) and communion (i.e., affection or warmth) were significant for students' emotional experiences. They noted that the highest enjoyment levels and the lowest anxiety levels can be expected for students taught by authoritative teachers, who had relatively high agency and communion. In a like manner, den Brok, Levy, Brekelmans, and Wubbels (2005) found that highly agentic teachers who were also perceived as expressing high levels of communion created more pleasant emotions in students than low-agentic teachers.

Overall, these findings help us to understand that harmony is an important value that guides the interpersonal interaction within Javanese classroom contexts. The indicators of harmony in Javanese society (maintaining connectedness, maintaining compatibility, conflict management and empathy) proposed by Lestari, Faturochman, Adiyanti, and Walgito (2013) are transferable to the principle of harmony in a classroom. As the teachers maintained classroom harmony to support their students' learning, they used these four key social-emotional behaviours. First, the teachers believed that teaching was a mandate from God to support students' academic, social, emotional and spiritual development. Second, the teachers regulated their own emotions in a way to minimise conflict in the classroom and to establish compatibility. Third, the teachers built warm emotional relationships with their students. Fourth, the teachers were empathetic, caring and patient with their students. Accordingly, classroom harmony can be considered the central feature in an Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practice. Classroom harmony is the glue of the Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices that hold the four other key dimensions together.

8.5 Contributions to Knowledge

Over the years, researchers have worked to develop an empirical body of literature to support the view that teaching and learning is an emotional practice. This study has advanced current

knowledge by explicating Indonesian teachers' and students' perspectives and experiences regarding teachers' social-emotional practices in a classroom setting. First of all, my study has clarified the emotional practices that occur in Indonesian classrooms. Emotions were at the heart of what teachers do and why they do it.

Furthermore, this mixed-methods study is a step towards the identification and nature of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices that are salient to their teaching practice. This study has explored the nature of teachers' social-emotional practices in an Indonesian classroom setting. While there were cultural differences, any of the attributes aligned with those reported by Chia (2014), Han (2016) and Harvey et al. (2012). More specifically, my study has identified what teachers' social-emotional practices are important in an Indonesian primary-school context. Five dimensions of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices were identified. A jasmine flower model illustrating the Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices has been designed to summarise the depth of these new understandings. These five dimensions are consistent with dimensions found in literature about emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 1997; Saarni, 1999; Salovey & Mayer, 1990), the role of emotions in teaching (Hargreaves, 1998; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009) and classroom emotional climate (Harvey, 2004).

This study has clarified the influence of social and cultural aspects of Indonesian teachers' beliefs which extends research by Mansour (2008). This study has also confirmed the emotion regulation strategies used by teachers in a classroom setting which is consistent with that reported by Gong et al. (2013), Jiang et al. (2016) and Sutton (2004). Furthermore, this study has conceptualised the nature of teacher and students emotional relationships which builds on works of Pianta (1999). The importance of teachers caring about teaching and for learners has been confirmed which aligns with researches reported by Nias (1999) and Noddings (2012). Finally, this study has suggested the significance of an harmonious emotional classroom climate, which extends research by Harvey and Evans (2003).

8.6 Opportunities for Future Research

This mixed-methods research about the social and emotional practices of teachers is the first of its kind in Indonesia. Further research utilising these methods to deepen understanding of these Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices would be beneficial. Such future studies could validate the jasmine flower model. Studies with samples of different demographic

characteristics need to be conducted to determine whether the model of teachers' social-emotional practices is universal across Indonesia, or where the differences might lie.

The current study has focused on the public primary school in one Indonesian city district. Replication of the measurements developed in Study 2 and Study 3 (TSEP-T and TSEP-S) with a larger population of teachers and students, different cultural background and other school levels (private schools, junior secondary schools or senior secondary schools) might allow for wider comparisons and enrich my current findings. Additionally, conducting research with at-risk students would be insightful to investigate how Indonesian teachers might improve their social-emotional competencies to decrease the risk of these learners with additional needs slipping through cracks in the education system.

Finally, this study has investigated the association between teachers' social-emotional styles and teacher-student relationship, students' connectedness and wellbeing. Further research is necessary to evaluate the influence of teachers' social-emotional styles may have on students' academic learning outcomes and whether any preferred social-emotional teacher styles exist for particular groups of students.

8.7 Implications for Educational Practice and Policy

The findings of this study have important implications for future practice. Firstly, the dimensions of Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practices were visually represented using the jasmine flower. This model can be used as a simple means of introducing the social-emotional practices to Indonesian teachers, teacher educators, educational researchers and also to policymakers. Furthermore, the use of a jasmine flower model will raise awareness by teachers, teacher educators and teaching supervisors of their own and others' social-emotional behaviours in a classroom setting. This knowledge and awareness support the identification of personal strengths and potential weakness and accordingly, can facilitate teachers' professional growth, especially their social-emotional skills.

Secondly, Indonesian primary school teachers can be inspired by learning about the nature of social-emotional practices – and using these as goals to aspire to. Teachers need to be mindful that their emotions and the impact of these in their classrooms. Teachers might be inspired to reconsider their social-emotional practices and challenge their taken-for-granted views and practices regarding the centrality of emotions in teaching. In doing so, teachers can re-frame their stance of teaching and understand the power of their roles to create positive emotional

classroom climate that support students' learning experiences. This research also highlighted the association between teachers' emotions and students' feeling. Thus, teachers can be helped to be attentive to their own emotional states, expressions and responses, knowing the impact it can have on their students. In addition, this research found the absence of emotional coaching in an Indonesian classroom setting. Indonesian teachers need to be taught to be aware of, and to play, their strategic role in promoting students' social-emotional learning and wellbeing.

Thirdly, this study calls for initial teacher education providers and in-service professional development programme designers to target teachers' social-emotional skills. Initial teacher educators are advised to promote the importance of social-emotional attributes in their selection processes, and to develop programmes that promote understandings implicit in the jasmine flower model. Furthermore, the findings from the present study have the potential to inform the design of in-service programmes for those who committed to improving teaching and learning in Indonesian primary schools by prioritising attention to the role of social-emotional practices in primary classroom setting. Understanding the key components of the Indonesian teachers' social-emotional practice will enable the assessment, personnel placement, training, shaping and future research of social-emotional teaching practices across Indonesia. It is within this context that I hope the jasmine flower model will be seen and smelt within Indonesian educational practices and policies.

Fourthly, alongside the study of teachers' social-emotional practices, there is a need to consider the importance of supporting teachers' own sense of wellbeing. It can be argued that the social-emotional demands underpinning effective pedagogical practice, found in this study, might influence teachers' personal wellbeing. Ensuring appropriate services, supports and systems for teachers to maintain healthy levels of wellbeing should be a priority for school leaders and policymakers. Additionally, it is argued that teachers need support to develop their own social-emotional skills and coping strategies through training and counselling sessions. These considerations are important to ensure a healthy school organisational climate thereby reducing teachers' stress and burnout.

Finally, it is valuable for policy-makers to think of students, not as passive recipients of knowledge, but rather as perceptive individuals who can be co-producers of knowledge by being highly attuned to their teachers' emotions and their teaching ideas. Indonesian students value and are affected by the positive emotional relationship their teachers have with them –

and this point needs to be recognised in Indonesian educational policy. Thus, it is important to consider students voices in developing new and future-focused school policies.

8.8 Personal Reflections on This Research

Behind the findings and conclusions of my study is a story of my own journey both as an individual as well as a researcher. I grew up in Indonesia where bullying was often overlooked. When I pursued my Master degree, I discovered that the topic of bullying in Indonesia is understudied even though the cases and the degree of severity seemed to increase. The data I collected showed that the number of bullying cases in primary schools was significantly high, leading me to study bullying in Indonesian primary schools. I delivered training for teachers to create anti-bullying programs at school and measured the impact of these programs.

After that study, I conducted more research on bullying until a guest professor from South Korea came to the university where I taught to mentor young lecturers who were about to pursue doctoral degrees. He asked me, "Wouldn't you want to focus on more positive topics instead of bullying which is a negative behaviour? Why don't you focus on social-emotional skills for example?" What he said made me realise that there are important matters that people should be more aware of to reduce bullying cases – such as teachers' social-emotional skills. At the same time, I was aware that primary school teachers play a very important role in students' social and emotional development. Nevertheless, social-emotional skills of Indonesian teachers were still overlooked. There were still cases where teachers give corporal punishment to their students as well as bully and abuse them. There is very little training to develop teachers' knowledge and skills on social-emotional matters. All this indicates that very little attention is given to Indonesian primary school teachers social-emotional skills.

About four years ago, I had got an opportunity to pursue my doctoral degree at Massey University, New Zealand. I brought the topic of primary schools teachers' social-emotional skills to Dr Shane Harvey, even though I doubted my ability to conduct such a study. I had very little knowledge on the process of developing social-emotional teaching practice. As far as I knew, most schools focused more on the development of cognition rather than emotion. Dr Harvey assured me that there must be practices conducted in the primary school classroom which aim to develop teachers' social-emotional skills. His interest and works in exploring social-emotional practice in various areas assured me of my new topic.

I then met Associate Professor Alison Sewell who eventually became one of my supervisors. Her sincere intention to assist and to develop knowledge in primary school teaching and learning practices have assured me even more about my topic. Lastly, Dr David Bimler, an expert in statistical analysis, guided me to incorporate quantitative analysis to explore the topic. Under these three amazing supervisors, a study using mixed-methods approach was chosen to more carefully explore the topic of teachers' social-emotional practices.

A year later, after my successful the confirmation as a doctoral candidate, I engaged in my field work to collect data. Through observation, I figured out the nature of social-emotional practices in Indonesian classrooms. Emotions are not a separate aspect in education. Teaching was indeed an emotional practice. In the interview and FGD stages, I questioned whether or not the teachers and students would be honest about their social-emotional practice and experiences because Indonesians can be shy to talk about how they feel. At the beginning of my interactions with the teachers and students, I did sense rejection, but I learned to listen and respond sincerely and over time they began to share their experiences and opinions. I learned how to create trust so that we could have rich conversations that allowed me to learn from the teachers and the students. I was beyond happy to listen to the teachers expressing their feelings, worries, and hopes. I was also surprised to see that students were actually very sensitive towards their teachers' feelings and about what happened in their classrooms.

Both in the qualitative and quantitative, data analyses were challenging. In the qualitative study, I was challenged to comprehend the huge pile of data I had generated in the PEI and FGD. I was unsure how to analyse them and to remain un-biased. Meanwhile, in the two quantitative studies, naming each behaviour group and teachers' styles was not easy. The biggest challenge, however, was the process of integrating my three studies. I learned to really understand what I had found, looking at which phenomenon was the most dominant and finding explanations reported in the wider literature.

This research has helped me to collaborate with Indonesian teachers and students to understand their social-emotional practices. I grew to understand my researcher role in the process of co-constructing knowledge with them. Moreover, this research has also shaped my identity as a researcher and deepened my research skills and knowledge. This process has humbled me for it opened my eyes to how close minded I had been. I began to see a new landscape and could detect the cultural nuances which led to my confidence to stand by my research conducted in my homeland of Indonesia. Ultimately, this research process has taught

me to be precise, disciplined, and critical. All of these lessons will help me to continue my journey as a researcher, educator and member of the society.

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Appendices

Appendix A1: A Question Guide for Teachers FGD

Free listing inquiry will be used in teacher focus group. First, the researcher will ask the participants to think about **a teacher who connected well with them, a teacher who made them achieved well, a teacher who made them really enjoy learning.** Then, the researcher will ask "**what did he/she do?**" and "**how do you describe his/her characteristics?**" The researcher will provide small cards and ask the participants to write one attribute describing that teacher on each card. The cards then will be collected in the centre of the table and the researcher will successively read them and ask the participants to explain and discus the answers.

The questions to start the discussion:

- What do you M by.....?
- What happened that time?
- What did he/she do? *Can you tell us more about that?*
- How did he/she do? *Can you tell us more about that?*
- Have you ever in the similar situation? *What did you do? Do others have a story like this?*
- Was that moment/behaviour memorable? Why was that?
- Was that moment/behaviour important? Why was that?

Closing question: What is your idea about the most important attributes to have as a teacher to establish positive classroom climate?

Appendix A2: A Question Guide for Students FGD

1. Warm-up procedures
    a. Greeting and introduction

        Since the participants come from various schools, they need to introduce themselves to each other before starting the discussion.

    b. Developing the rules

        The researcher will lead the participants to discuss the rules of the focus group. The participants will propose the rules of the focus group and the rest of the members will agree. The researcher will endorse some positive value like care and respect to be covered in the rules.

2. Game-facilitated discussion

    Small group discussion will use game-facilitated inquiry as follow:

    a. Tools:
        - Board (see Figure 1)
        - Dice
        - Token
        - Question cards with triangle, circle, rectangle and diamond symbols

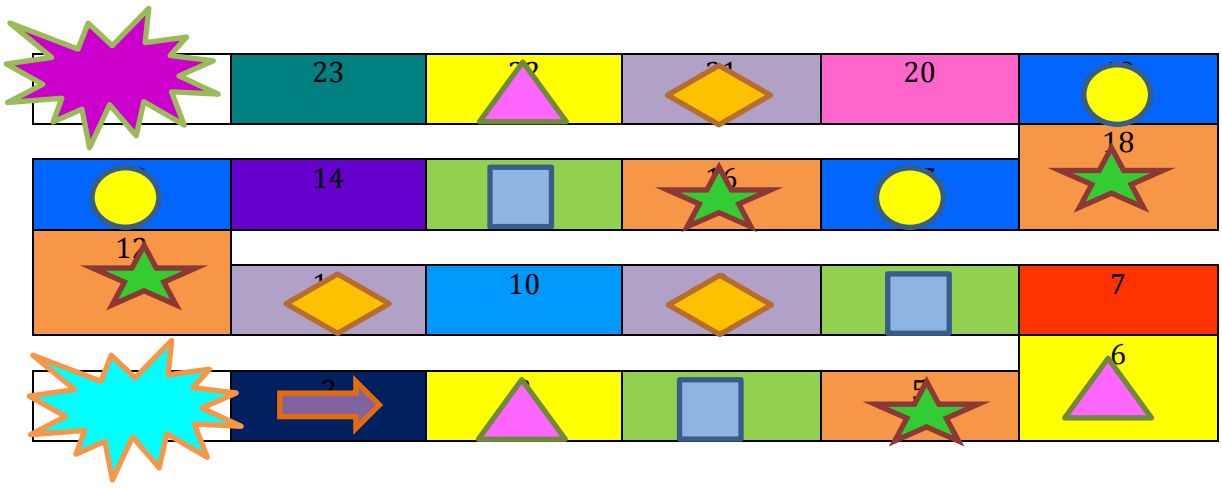


Figure 1. Board for the game-facilitated discussion

    b. Rules:
        - Each child gets one token to be played.
        - The child will roll the dice and move forward that number of spaces.
        - If he/she lands on a square with star symbol, he/she will get a small present like candy or biscuit.

- If he/she lands on a square with circle, triangle, rectangle or diamond symbol, he/she should take one card with same picture and read the question in the card or ask the researcher or other participant to read it aloud.
- Once the question has been read aloud, the participants will choose whether they want to answer. The researcher will fuel the discussion by prompting individual students and asking follow-up questions when appropriate.
- If the token lands on the card whose symbol has been all taken by other participants, he/she has to throw the dice for the second time.
- The game ends when all participants reach the "finish" square.

c. Questions:
    - What makes your teacher good at being a teacher? What do they do? What makes a good teacher?
    - I like my teacher when he/she....
    - What do you like most about your teacher?
    - How would you like your teacher to work with you when you are happy?
    - How would you like your teacher to work with you when you are excited?
    - How would you like your teacher to work with you when you are upset?
    - How would you like your teacher to work with you when you are angry or mad about something?
    - How would you like your teacher to work with you when you are worry or scared about something?
    - How does your teacher show that he/she cares?
    - How does your teacher provides a safe and calming classroom?
    - If there's someone's crying, what does your teacher do?
    - If there's a fight between students, what does your teacher do?
    - How do you show that you care about your friend? *Can you tell me more about that time?*
    - What's the best thing about your classroom?
    - What's the best thing about you school?

3. Session ending

In the end of the session, the researcher will ask a follow-up questions:

- If I was going to train teachers, what would you want me to tell the trainee teachers?
- If there was one thing you could tell all the teachers and principals about what they can do to make schools a happy place to learn for children, what would it be?"

Appendix A3: A Question Guide for Teacher Interview

The photo-elicitation inquiry will be used for teacher interview. The interviewer will show some photos to the teacher and ask some questions:

- What happened in this photo?
- What did you do on that moment?
- Why did you do that? What were you wanting to achive?
- Were there any changes happened? *What were they?*
- What did you feel at that moment?
- What was the students' feeling?
- Have you ever been in the same situation? *Did you respond it in the same way? (If not) what did you do? Which one was more effective?*
- Can you think about a moment that you are so happy or excited? *What did you do? Can you tell me more about that feeling? How do you usually cope with that?*
- Can you think about a moment that you are so angry? *What did you do? Can you tell me more about that feeling? How do you usually cope with that?*
- Are there other emotions that you feel as a teacher in the teaching practice? *How do you usually manage that emotion?*

Appendix A4: Teachers' Follow-Up Interview Guidelines

The initial findings from this data collection phase showed that socially and emotionally competent Indonesian teachers have the following key attributes: care, thoughtfulness, encouragement, patience and humor. In this interview, I want to ask you the actual behaviours reflecting those attributes.

- How do you show to your students that you are care about them?
- How do you show your thoughtfulness to your students?
- How do you encourage your students?
- How do you show your patience to them?
- How do you become a humorous teacher?

Appendix B: Approval letter from Massey Human Ethic Committee

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
TE KUNENGA KI PŪREHUROA

21 May 2015

Edilburga Saptandari
[redacted]

Dear Edilburga

Re: HEC: Southern B Application – 15/18
Understanding the social emotional skills of Indonesian primary school teachers

Thank you for your letter received 20 May 2015.

On behalf of the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B I am pleased to advise you that the ethics of your application are now approved. Approval is for three years. If this project has not been completed within three years from the date of this letter, reapproval must be requested.

Please note that travel undertaken by students must be approved by the supervisor and the relevant Pro Vice-Chancellor and be in accordance with the Policy and Procedures for Course-Related Student Travel Overseas. In addition, the supervisor must advise the University's Insurance Officer.

If the nature, content, location, procedures or personnel of your approved application change, please advise the Secretary of the Committee.

Yours sincerely

JM Boddy

Prof Julie Boddy, Chair
Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B

cc Dr Shane Harvey
School of Psychology
PN320

Dr Alison Sewell
Institute of Education
PN500

Dr David Bimler
Institute of Education
PN500

Prof James Liu, HoS
School of Psychology
ALBANY

Prof John O'Neill, Director
Institute of Education
PN500

Massey University Human Ethics Committee
Accredited by the Health Research Council

Research Ethics Office, Research and Enterprise
Massey University, Private Bag 11222, Palmerston North 4442, New Zealand T 06 3505573; 06 3505575 F 06 350 5622
E humanethics@massey.ac.nz; animalethics@massey.ac.nz; gtc@massey.ac.nz www.massey.ac.nz

Appendix C1: Study 1 Information Sheet for schools

Understanding the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

INFORMATION SHEET

Researcher Introduction

My name is Edilburga Wulan Saptandari. I am a teacher at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia but currently a PhD student at the School of Psychology, Massey University, New Zealand. I am conducting research under the supervision of **Dr. Shane T. Harvey** from the School of Psychology, **Dr. Alison Sewell** from the Institute of Education and **Dr. David L. Bimler** from the Department of Health and Human Development. In addition, **Dr. Neila Ramdhani** from the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada is the site advisor for this research.

Project Description

From their experiences, teachers and students know what researchers have found, that social emotional skills and behaviours affect many areas of classroom life. As the primary adult in the classroom, teachers have a vital role to establish healthy relationships with students, to be a role model for students and to manage classroom effectively. These tasks are important to develop positive classroom climate.

Research aim:

1. To identify how Indonesian primary school teachers and students view social and emotional practices.
2. To identify social-emotional skills and how Indonesian teachers use these.

Benefits of the research:

1. Understanding teachers' beneficial social-emotional skills in an Indonesian context may lead to the development of promotion, prevention and intervention programs related to social emotional skills.

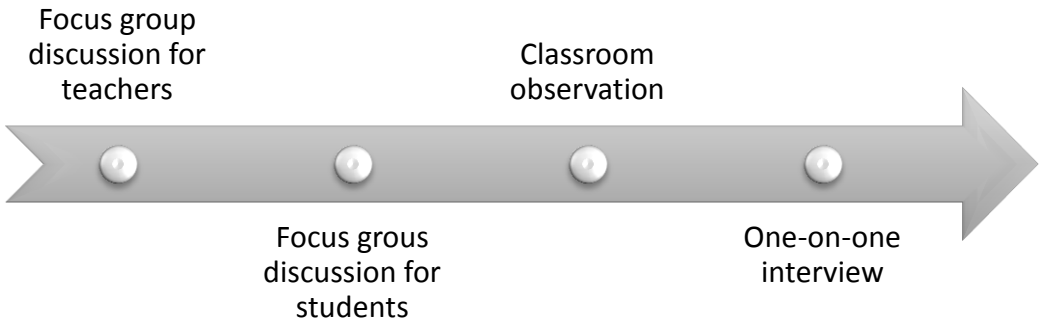
2. In the focus group session, teachers and students will be encouraged to share their experiences and perception about social-emotional skills. This listening to teachers and students experiences and perceptions will be a positive and empowering experience.

Participant Identification and Recruitment

All teacher participants in this research are those who have won and/or participated in "Distinguished Teacher Competition" in Yogyakarta city district level. The researcher has sought permission to obtain the participant names from Education Agency of Yogyakarta. Fifteen to eighteen primary school teachers will be involved in this study. The addition, student participants will be in the teacher participants' class. All students in teachers' class will be involved in classroom observation sessions. Two students from each classroom will be invited to join the focus group discussion. These numbers is considered sufficient to generate deep and comprehensive information and yet be manageable to conduct.

Project Procedures

This research consists of three data collection methods: focus group discussion, classroom observation and one-to-one interview.



First, I will conduct the focus group discussion with teachers from your school and from other primary schools in Yogyakarta. If needed, I will conduct one-on-one interview with the teachers to inquire into their experiences and perspectives. Next, I will hold a focus group discussion you're your students from grade 2 to 6 along with students from other primary schools. The focus group will be conducted after school hours at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada. Parents or caregiver of the student participants can choose whether they take their child to the venue or give me permission to pick him/her up in the school and take him/her back after the discussion finish.
After that, I will organize three classroom observation sessions. During the observation, I will take some photos with my tablet. I will not print these photos out. These photos will be used in the one-on-one interview session as a tool to stimulate teachers' perspectives and reflections about social-emotional practices in classroom setting. The interview will be conducted after school hours in the teacher's convenient time and place.
The focus group discussions and one-on-one interviews will be audiotaped.
Permission will be sought from the teachers, students and their parents prior to their participation in the research. Only those who consent and whose parents consent will participate.

Data Management

After the data is obtained, I will transcribe them. Then, I will analyse the data. Pseudonyms will always be used throughout the research. No names and school names will appear in the thesis.
The data will be kept strictly confidential. I will store all the recordings and transcripts in a locked cabinet. Only I, as the researcher, and the three academic supervisors will have the authority to access the documents. The documents will be destroyed 5 years after I finished my PhD program.
You have the right to receive a summary of this study at its conclusion. If you want to receive it, you will be asked to provide an email or postal address.

School Involvement

Once I have received your consent to approach learners to participate in the study, I will:

- arrange for informed consent to be obtained from teachers, students and their parents
- arrange a time with your school for data collection to take place
- obtain informed consent from participants

Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at [redacted] or email [redacted]. I would be very happy to provide you with any further information. Your cooperation is highly appreciated.
Thank you.

Regards,

Edilburga Wulan Saptandari

School of Psychology
Massey University
Palmerston North, New Zealand
Phone: [redacted]

Email: [redacted]

Supervisors:

Dr. Shane T. Harvey
School of Psychology
Massey University
Palmerston North, New Zealand
Email: s.t.harvey@massey.ac.nz

Dr. Alison Sewell
Institute of Education
Massey University
Palmerston North, New Zealand
Email: a.m.sewell@massey.ac.nz

Dr. David L. Bimler
Department of Health & Human Development

Massey University
Wellington, New Zealand
Email: d.bimler@massey.ac.nz

Site Advisor:

Dr. Neila Ramdhani
Faculty of Psychology
Universitas Gadjah Mada
Yogyakarta
Email: neila_psi@ugm.ac.id

Committee Approval Statement

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 15/18. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Prof Julie Boddy, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 06 350 5799 x 86055, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

Appendix C1: Study 1 Information Sheet for schools (Bahasa Indonesia)

Understanding the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

LEMBAR INFORMASI

Mengenai Peneliti
Nama saya Edilburga Wulan Saptandari. Saya adalah dosen di Fakultas Psikologi, Universitas Gadjah Mada dan saat ini sedang menempuh program doktor pada School of Psychology, Massey University, New Zealand. Dalam penelitian disertasi ini, saya dibimbing oleh tiga orang dosen sebagai berikut: **Dr. Shane T. Harvey** dari School of Psychology, **Dr. Alison Sewell** dari Institute of Education dan **Dr. David T. Bimler** dari Department of Health and Human Development. Sementara pembimbing lapangan dalam penelitian ini adalah **Dr. Neila Ramdhani** dari Fakultas Psikologi, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta.

Deskripsi Penelitian
Berdasarkan pengalaman mereka, guru dan siswa mengetahui bahwa keterampilan sosial dan emosi membawa pengaruh yang besar terhadap situasi kelas. Hal yang sama ditemukan oleh para peneliti. Sebagai orang dewasa dalam kelas, guru memiliki peran penting untuk mengembangkan hubungan baik dengan siswa, menjadi teladan siswa, dan untuk mengatur kelas secara efektif demi terciptanya iklim kelas yang positif.

Tujuan penelitian:
1. Mengidentifikasi pandangan guru dan siswa sekolah dasar di Indonesia mengenai praktek keterampilan sosial dan emosi di dalam kelas.
2. Mengidentifikasi respon sosial-emosi guru dan penerapannya secara efektif.

Manfaat penelitian:
1. Pemahaman mengenai keterampilan sosial-emosi guru dalam konteks Indonesia dapat mendorong terciptanya program promosi, pencegahan, maupun penanganan terkait masalah sosial dan emosi di sekolah.
2. Dalam diskusi kelompok, guru dan siswa didorong untuk saling berbagi mengenai pendapat, pengalaman, dan harapannya mengenai masalah keterampilan sosial dan emosi. Proses ini

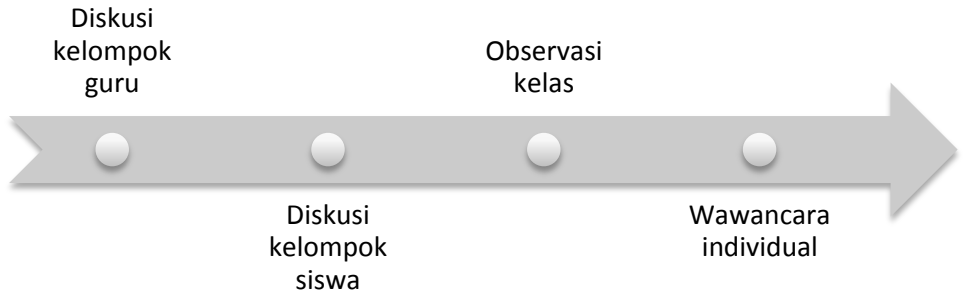
akan menjadi pengalaman yang positif bagi guru dan siswa karena merasa didengarkan dan dihargai

Identifikasi dan Rekrutmen Peserta

Guru yang terlibat dalam penelitian ini adalah para guru yang memenangkan dan/atau mengikuti "Lomba Guru Berprestasi" tingkat Kota Yogyakarta. Saya mendapatkan daftar nama ini dari Dinas Pendidikan Kota Yogyakarta. Lima belas sampai delapan belas orang guru akan dilibatkan dalam penelitian ini. Sementara siswa yang terlibat adalah para siswa yang berada pada kelas guru yang bersangkutan. Seluruh siswa akan dilibatkan dalam observasi kelas. Sementara dua orang siswa dari masing-masing kelas akan diundang untuk mengikuti disukusi kelompok. Jumlah tersebut dipandang sesuai untuk mendapatkan data yang mendalam dan komprehensif sekaligus dapat dikelola dengan baik.

Rencana dan Metodologi Penelitian

Penelitian ini terdiri atas tiga metode pengumpulan data, yaitu: diskusi kelompok, observasi kelas, dan wawancara individual.



Pertama-tama, saya akan menyelenggarakan diskusi kelompok dengan guru dan siswa kelas 2 – 6 secara terpisah. Diskusi kelompok dilaksanakan bersama guru dan siswa dari beberapa sekolah dasar di Kota Yogyakarta. Jika dibutuhkan, saya akan mengadakan wawancara individual pada guru yang memiliki pengalaman dan pandangan khusus. Setelah itu, saya akan mengadakan observasi kelas sebanyak tiga kali. Saya akan mengambil foto menggunakan *tablet* dalam proses observasi. Foto tersebut tidak akan dicetak. Foto digunakan sebagai alat bantu dalam wawancara individual pada guru untuk menggali lebih lanjut mengenai pengalaman dan pendapat guru tersebut. Perekaman suara akan dilakukan dalam diskusi kelompok dan wawancara individual.

Sebelum melaksanakan penelitian, saya akan meminta izin dan persetujuan dari guru, siswa, dan orangtua siswa yang bersangkutan. Hanya yang bersedia mengikuti penelitian ini akan disertakan menjadi partisipan penelitian.

Pengelolaan Data

Setelah data didapatkan, saya akan melakukan proses transkripsi. Setelah itu, saya akan melakukan analisis data. Nama pengganti akan digunakan sepanjang penelitian ini. Tidak ada nama sekolah maupun nama asli partisipan penelitian akan muncul dalam disertasi saya.

Data akan diperlakukan dengan menjunjung tinggi prinsip kerahasiaan. Seluruh data akan disimpan dalam kabinet terkunci yang hanya bisa diakses oleh peneliti serta tiga orang dosen pembimbing. Seluruh data akan dihancurkan 5 tahun setelah saya menyelesaikan program doktor ini.

Ibu/Bapak memiliki hak untuk mendapatkan ringkasan hasil penelitian ini. Jika Ibu/Bapak menghendakinya, saya akan meminta alamat email atau alamat surat sehingga saya dapat mengirimkannya setelah penelitian ini selesai.

Keterlibatan Sekolah

Setelah peneliti mendapat persetujuan dari Ibu/Bapak Kepala Sekolah, peneliti akan

- Mengatur agar guru, siswa, dan orangtua siswa mendapat lembar informasi dan lembar persetujuan penelitian
- Mengatur waktu dan tempat pelaksanakan penelitian
- Mengumpulkan lembar persetujuan dari seluruh partisipan

Jika Ibu/Bapak memiliki pertanyaan lebih lanjut, Ibu/Bapak dapat menghubungi saya melalui telepon [redacted] atau email [redacted].

Atas kerjasama yang diberikan, saya mengucapkan terimakasih.

Hormat saya,

Edilburga Wulan Saptandari
School of Psychology
Massey University
Palmerston North, New Zealand
Telepon: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

Dosen Pembimbing:

Dr. Shane T. Harvey
School of Psychology
Massey University
Palmerston North, New Zealand
Email: s.t.harvey@massey.ac.nz

Dr. Alison Sewell
Institute of Education
Massey University
Palmerston North, New Zealand
Email: a.m.sewell@massey.ac.nz

Dr. David L. Bimler
Department of Health & Human Development
Massey University
Wellington, New Zealand
Email: d.bimler@massey.ac.nz

Pembimbing Lapangan:

Dr. Neila Ramdhani
Fakultas Psikologi
Universitas Gadjah Mada
Yogyakarta
Email: neila_psi@ugm.ac.id

Pernyataan Persetujuan dari Komite

Penelitian ini telah dikaji dan disetujui oleh Komite Etik Massey University: Southern B, Aplikasi 15/18. Jika Anda memiliki pertanyaan terkait penelitian ini silakan mengubungi Prof Julie Boddy,

Pimpinan, Komite Etik Massey University: Southern B, telefon 06 350 5799 x 86055, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

Appendix C2: Study 1 Invitation Letter for schools

……. 2015

School Principal

_____

_____

Dear Sir/Madam

Letter of Invitation to School Principals

My name is Edilburga Wulan Saptandari. I am a teacher at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia but currently a PhD student at the School of Psychology, Massey University, New Zealand. I am conducting research under the supervision of **Dr. Shane T. Harvey** from the School of Psychology, **Dr. Alison Sewell** from the Institute of Education and **Dr. David L. Bimler** from the Department of Health and Human Development. In addition, **Dr. Neila Ramdhani** from the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada is the site advisor for this research.

I invite you to consider taking part in my research entitled "**Understanding the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers**". This study aims to identify how social and emotional practices are viewed by Indonesian primary school teachers and students, and how effective Indonesian primary school teachers use social-emotional skills to develop a positive classroom climate.

This study has met the requirements of the Human Ethics Committee, Massey University. The Clearance Agency and the Education Agency of Yogyakarta have given their approval to approach schools for my research. A copy of their approval is contained with this letter.

Please read the enclosed Information Sheet outlining my proposed study. I will contact you within the next few days to arrange a suitable time to discuss this proposal with you. I look forward to further discussion.

Yours sincerely,

Edilburga Wulan Saptandari

School of Psychology
Massey University
Palmerston North, New Zealand
Phone: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

Appendix C3: Study 1 Consent Form for school principals

School Consent Form

I give consent for you to approach teachers and students in grade 2 to 6 to participate in the research entitled "**Understanding the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers**".

I have read the Information Sheet explaining the purpose of the research project and understand that:

- The role of the school is voluntary.
- I may decide to withdraw the school's participation at any time without penalty.
- Teachers and students from grade 2 to 6 will be invited to participate and that permission will be sought from them and also from the students' parents.
- Only students who consent and whose parents consent will participate in the project.
- All information obtained will be treated in strictest confidence.
- The teachers' and students' names will not be used and individual teachers and students will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study.
- The school will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study.
- A report of the findings will be made available to the school.

Signature: ..... **Date:** .....

Full Name - printed .....

Appendix C4: Study 1 Information Sheet inviting participation for teachers

Understanding the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

INFORMATION SHEET

Researcher Introduction

My name is Edilburga Wulan Saptandari. I am a teacher at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia but currently a PhD student at the School of Psychology, Massey University, New Zealand. I am conducting research under the supervision of **Dr. Shane T. Harvey** from the School of Psychology, **Dr. Alison Sewell** from the Institute of Education and **Dr. David L. Bimler** from the Department of Health and Human Development. In addition, **Dr. Neila Ramdhani** from the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada is the site advisor for this research.

Project Description and Invitation

This study aims to identify how social emotional practices in the classroom setting are viewed by teachers and students and used effectively by Indonesian primary school teachers.

From their experiences, teachers and students know what researchers have found, that social emotional skills and behaviours affect many areas at classroom life. As the primary adult in the classroom, teachers have a vital role to establish healthy relationships with students, to be a role model for students and to manage classrooms effectively. These tasks are important to develop positive classroom climate.

You are invited to take part in this study. Please read the following information carefully before you decide to be involved.

Participant Identification and Recruitment

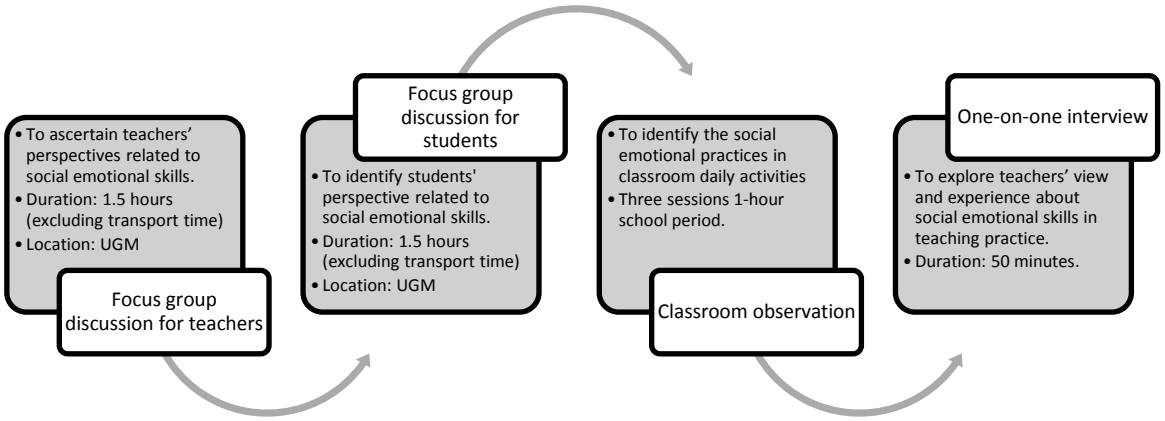
You have been identified as a possible participant in this research because you who won and/or participated in “Distinguished Teacher Competition” in Yogyakarta city district level. I have obtained your name from Education Agency of Yogyakarta. Fifteen to eighteen primary school teachers will be involved in this study. This number is considered sufficient to generate deep and comprehensive information and yet be manageable to conduct.

Apart from your time for focus group discussions, classroom observations and one-on-one interviews, the researcher can foresee no risks for you.

As my appreciation for your participation, you will receive 125,000 IDR to compensate your time and travel expenses.

Project Procedures

If you choose to participate in my study, you will be asked to participate in focus group discussion, classroom observation and one-on-one interview.



After the focus group discussion, I will invite you to participate in an individual interview to explore your perspectives and experiences. Then, I will come to your classroom and observe three sessions. I will take some photos with my tablet and will not print them out. I will use these photos as a tool for one-on-one interviews with you. The focus group discussions and one-on-one interviews will be audiotaped.

Data Management

After the data is obtained, I will transcribe them using Indonesian language. Then, I will analyse the data. Pseudonyms will always be used throughout the research. Your name and school will not appear in my thesis.

The data will be kept strictly confidential. I will store all the recordings and transcripts in a locked cabinet. Only I as the researcher and my three academic supervisors will have the authority to access the documents. The documents will be destroyed 5 years after I finished my PhD program.

You have the right to receive a summary of this study at its conclusion. If you want to receive it, you will be asked to provide an email or postal address.

Your Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- decline to answer any particular question;
- withdraw from the study at anytime;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded;
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview.

Project Contacts

- Edilburga Wulan Saptandari
  PhD Student, School of Psychology, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand
  Phone: [redacted]
  E-mail : [redacted]
- Dr. Neila Ramdhani,
  Site Advisor, Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta, Indonesia
  E-mail : neila_psi@ugm.ac.id

Please feel free to contact me and/or my supervisor at anytime if you have any questions about the project.

Committee Approval Statement

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 15/18. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Prof Julie Boddy, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 06 350 5799 x 86055, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

Appendix C5: Study 1 Consent Form for teachers

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I also understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and decline to answer any particular questions in the study.

I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that my name will not be used without permission, and that the information will be confidential to the researcher and only used for the purposes of this research.

I agree to participate in the Focus group and not to disclosure anything discussed in the Focus Group. YES ☐ NO ☐

I give permission for the researcher to interview me during the study. YES ☐ NO ☐

I agree to the focus group discussion and interview being audio tape-recorded, knowing that I have the right to turn the tape recorder off at any time. YES ☐ NO ☐

I give permission for the researcher to observe, take notes and take some photos in my classroom during the study. YES ☐ NO ☐

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signature : …… Date : ……

Full name - printed : ……

Appendix C6: Study 1 Child-friendly pamphlet inviting students' participation

Understanding the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School

My name is Wulan Saptandari. You can call me Yayi. I work at Faculty of Psychology UGM and I study at the School of Psychology, Massey University in New Zealand. I am doing a study about how teachers help children, like you, to learn. I will listen to your ideas about this.

In this study I will run:

Small group discussions

Classroom observation

What will the small group discussion be like?

It'll be 6 to 8 students from various primary schools sitting around a table with me. I will ask you questions and we will discuss. , We will also use a game to help you to think about the questions. I plan to tape record our voices so I can remember the discussion afterwards. There is no right or wrong answer. I want to hear what you think ☺

What will the classroom observation be like?

I will come to your classroom and sit at the back. I will see and listen to everything happening in the classroom. I will write some notes about it and take some photos.

Your parents or caregiver have already been given an Information Sheet about this study and they have returned their Consent Form to school. Today, you can decide whether you want to be part of this study. You will only be part of the study if both you and your parents or caregivers agree to this.

If you do not want to be a part of small group discussion, I will not ask you to join in that discussion. If you do not want me to observe you learning in the class, I will not record this.

If you take part in this study, you have the right to:

- Say that you no longer want to be part of the study;
- Ask any question about the study any time;
- Say that you do not wish to answer any questions;
- Talk to Yayi knowing that she won't tell anyone what you said;
- Have your real name protected;
- Be told what the study found out.

If you want to talk more about the study, I will be available at _____ to answer your questions.

Only I will know whether you have said yes or no to be part of this study.

Thank you!

Wulan Saptandari

Appendix C7: Study 1 Consent Form for students

STUDENT CONSENT FORM

I have listened to and read the information about this study. My questions about this study have been answered, so that I now understand the study.

I understand that I can pull out of the study at any time, and I don't have to answer all the questions I am asked.

I understand that my name will not appear on any report about this study, and that any information I tell to Yayi will not be told to anyone else.

I agree to talk with Yayi about my classroom situation and the discussion will be sound recorded. YES ☐ NO ☐

I agree that while Yayi is looking at what I am doing in the classroom, she can take notes about what she sees me doing and take some photos. YES ☐ NO ☐

Child's name : _____

Child's signature : _____

Class Teacher's name : _____

Appendix C8: Study 1 Information Sheet for parents/carer

MASSEY UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
TE KURA PŪKENGA TANGATA

Understanding the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

INFORMATION SHEET

Researcher Introduction

My name is Edilburga Wulan Saptandari, and I am a teacher at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia but currently a PhD student at the School of Psychology, Massey University, New Zealand. I am conducting research under the supervision of **Dr. Shane T. Harvey** from the School of Psychology, **Dr. Alison Sewell** from the Institute of Education and **Dr. David L. Bimler** from the Department of Health and Human Development. In addition, **Dr. Neila Ramdhani** from the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada is the site advisor for this research.

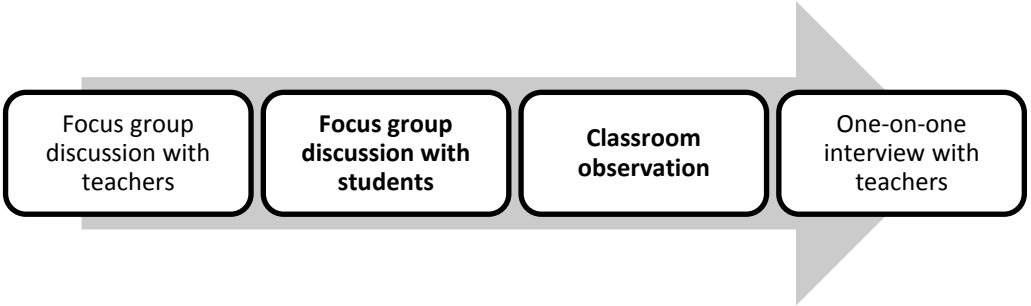
Project Description and Invitation

This study aims to identify how the social emotional practices of your child's teacher are viewed by teachers and students.

Your child has been identified as a possible participant in this study. Please read the following information carefully before you decide to give permission, or not, for your child to be involved in this research. Your child's participation is invaluable for the success of this study.

Project Procedures

This study consists of four phases as follow:



If you are giving permission for your child to participate and your child is willing to participate in this study, your child, along with others selected, will join a focus group discussion. The discussion will be approximately for 1.5 hours and will be audio tape-recorded. The focus group discussion will be conducted after school hours with the permission from the parents or caregiver, teacher and principal. It will be held in the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada. The parents or caregiver can take their child to the venue. However, I will provide transportation to pick your child up from the school and take him/her back to the school if you give permission for me to do so.

After the focus group discussion, I will conduct three classroom observations. I will take some photos of your child as he/she engages in their learning with my tablet. I will not print these photos out. These photos will only be used as a tool for interview with teachers.

Data Management

After the data is obtained, I will transcribe them. Then, I will analyse the data. No names and school names will appear in the dissertation.

The data will be kept strictly confidential. I will store all the recordings and transcripts in a locked cabinet. The documents will be destroyed 5 years after I finished my PhD program.

Participant's Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to permit your child to participate, you have the right to:

- withdraw your child from the study anytime;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name and your child's name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.

Project Contacts

- Edilburga Wulan Saptandari
  PhD Student, School of Psychology, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand
  Phone: [redacted]
  E-mail : [redacted]
- Dr. Neila Ramdhani,
  Site Advisor, Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta, Indonesia
  E-mail : neila_psi@ugm.ac.id

Please feel free to contact me and/or my site advisor anytime if you have any questions about the project.

Please complete the enclosed Consent Form and return it to your child's school in the envelope provided. Your child will complete their consent form at school.

Committee Approval Statement

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 15/18. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Prof Julie Boddy, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 06 350 5799 x 86055, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

Appendix C9: Study 1 Consent Form for parents/carer

Understanding the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

PARENTS/CAREGIVER CONSENT FORM

I have read the Information Sheet and have discussed the details of the study with my child. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I understand that I have the right to withdraw my child from the study at any time.

I agree to let my child voluntary participate in the focus group discussion on the understanding that his/her name will not be used, and that the information will be confidential to the researcher and only used for the purposes of this study. I understand that the focus group will be audio-taped and will only be used for the purpose of this study. YES ☐ NO ☐

☐ I will take my child to the venue of focus group.

☐ I give permission to the researcher to pick my child up in the school and take him/her back to school.

I give permission for the researcher to observe my child in the classroom. YES ☐ NO ☐

I give permission for the researcher to take notes and to take some photos about the classroom interaction as a group. YES ☐ NO ☐

Child's name : _____

Child's date of birth : _____

Child's teacher : _____

Name of person completing the consent form: _____

Relationship to child : _____

Signature : _____

Date : _____

Please return this consent form to the school in the next week.

Appendix C10: Study 1 (Follow-up Data Collection) Information Sheet for teachers

… August 2016

Dear Mr./Mrs.....
..... Primary School
.....
.....

Understanding the Social and Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers'

Follow-up Interview with Teacher and Students

You may recall I conducted classroom observations, an interview and a focus group discussion with you and six students from your class late last year and earlier this year. The aims of this doctoral research are to understand: (1) how Indonesian primary school teachers and students view social and emotional practices and (2) what social emotional skills are used and (3) how these are used.

The initial findings from this data collection phase showed that socially and emotionally competent Indonesian teachers have the following key attributes: care, thoughtfulness, encouragement, patience and humor. However, there was a gap in my data related to actual behaviours reflecting these attributes.

To develop a more comprehensive picture of these teachers' social emotional skills, I need to find examples to illustrate their attributes. Therefore, I am asking your permission to conduct:

1. One 20-30 minutes interview with the teacher who participated in the previous data collection;
2. One 30 minutes focus group discussion with those students who remain at your school.

If you choose to continue participating in this study, an interview would be arranged at a time and place of your convenience. The interview would last about 30 minutes. During this interview, I will tell you some of the attributes of teachers with high social and emotional competency. Then, I would like to know more about the examples of actual behaviours reflecting these attributes.

Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at +642108369211 or email wulansaptandari@gmail.com. I would be very happy to provide you with any further information. Thank you very much for considering this additional interview.

With warm regards,

Edilburga Wulan Saptandari

School of Psychology
Massey University
Palmerston North, New Zealand
Phone: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

Site Advisor:

Dr. Neila Ramdhani

Faculty of Psychology
Universitas Gadjah Mada
Yogyakarta
Email: neila_psi@ugm.ac.id

Committee Approval Statement

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, Application 15/18. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Prof Julie Boddy, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern B, telephone 06 350 5799 x 86055, email humanethicsouthb@massey.ac.nz

Appendix CII: Study 1 (Follow-up Data Collection) Consent Form for teachers

Understanding the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

TEACHER PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Follow-up Interview

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I also understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and decline to answer any particular questions in the study.

I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that my name will not be used without permission, and that the information will be confidential to the researcher and only used for the purposes of this research.

I agree to participate in the follow-up interview.

YES ☐ NO ☐

I agree to the follow-up interview being audio tape-recorded, knowing that I have the right to turn the tape recorder off at any time.

YES ☐ NO ☐

Signature: ..... **Date:** .....

Full Name - printed .....

Appendix C12: Study 2 Information Sheet

Mapping the Social-Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

Information Sheet

Researcher Introduction

My name is Edilburga Wulan Saptandari, and I am a teacher at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia but currently a PhD student at the School of Psychology, Massey University, New Zealand. I am conducting research under the supervision of **Dr. Shane T. Harvey** from the School of Psychology, **Dr. Alison Sewell** from the Institute of Education and **Dr. David L. Bimler** from the Department of Health and Human Development.

Project Description and Invitation

In this study, items containing teachers' and students' perceptions of teachers' social emotional skills will be compared in order to develop a model based on similarity. The aim will be to develop an inter-item map of relatedness, from which we will be able to conduct further research to identify teachers' key behaviours and develop social emotional practice profiles.

I would appreciate your input in understanding what this may look like and invite you to take part in this study.

Project Procedures and Data Management

If you choose to participate, you will get an instruction sheet and a deck of cards each listing a type of behaviour. You will be asked to sort these cards by similarity. The task will take about 60 min.

I am looking for 30 adult participants to help out. This is the minimum number required for the type of statistical analysis we're using in this study.

When we receive everybody's responses, the data will be analysed to create a map of how closely these behaviours relate. The concept is the same as a geographical map that shows in physical space how close two towns are.

The data will be kept strictly confidential. I will store all the recordings and transcripts in a locked cabinet. The documents will be destroyed 5 years after I finished my PhD program.

When the study is complete, we will distribute a summary of the research findings. We can be available to discuss these results with you if you wish.

Participant's Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- Ask any questions about the study at any time during participation
- Provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher
- Be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded

Project Contacts

If you would like to know more, please do not hesitate to contact me directly, or you can reach my supervisors with any queries or concerns:

Edilburga Wulan Saptandari
PhD Student, School of Psychology, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand
Phone: [redacted]
E-mail : [redacted]

Site advisor:
Dr. Neila Ramdhani
Faculty of Psychology
Universitas Gadjah Mada
Yogyakarta
Email: neila_psi@ugm.ac.id

Committee Approval Statement

This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher(s) named in this document are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.
If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you want to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact Dr Brian Finch, Director (Research Ethics), email humanethics@massey.ac.nz.

Appendix C13: Study 2 Consent Form

Mapping the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

Participant Consent Form – Individual

☐ I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

☐ I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signature: _____

Full Name – printed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix C14: Study 3 Information Sheet for schools

Profiling the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

INFORMATION SHEET

Researcher Introduction

My name is Edilburga Wulan Saptandari. I am a teacher at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia but currently a PhD student at the School of Psychology, Massey University, New Zealand. I am conducting research under the supervision of **Dr. Shane T. Harvey** from the School of Psychology, **Dr. Alison Sewell** from the Institute of Education and **Dr. David L. Bimler** from the Department of Health and Human Development. In addition, **Dr. Neila Ramdhani** from the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada is the site advisor for this research.

Project Description

Based on primary school teachers' and students' experiences, social and emotional skills have a major influence on the classroom environment. The same thing was discovered by the researchers. As adults in class, teachers have an important role to play in developing good relationships with students, being role models of students, and to organize classes effectively for the creation of a positive classroom climate.

The purpose of this study was to develop a profile of elementary school teachers' social-emotional skills. Thus this research is expected to provide an understanding of the teacher's social-emotional skills in the Indonesian context which in turn can encourage the creation of promotion, prevention and handling programs related to social and emotional problems in schools.

Participant Identification and Recruitment

Teachers and students who were invited to be involved in this study were teachers of class IV - VI in several public primary schools in the city of Yogyakarta. Schools are chosen randomly from the list of existing public primary schools.

Project Procedures

In this study, the teacher and students involved will be asked to complete the questionnaire. The time required in filling out this questionnaire is around 40 minutes.

Data Management

After the data is obtained, I will analyse the data. Pseudonyms will always be used throughout the research. No names and school names will appear in the thesis.
The data will be kept strictly confidential. I will store all the recordings and transcripts in a locked cabinet. Only I, as the researcher, and the three academic supervisors will have the authority to access the documents. The documents will be destroyed 5 years after I finished my PhD program.
You have the right to receive a summary of this study at its conclusion. If you want to receive it, you will be asked to provide an email or postal address.

School Involvement

Once I have received your consent to approach learners to participate in the study, I will:

- arrange for informed consent to be obtained from teachers, students and their parents
- arrange a time with your school for data collection to take place
- obtain informed consent from participants

Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at [redacted] or email [redacted]. I would be very happy to provide you with any further information. Your cooperation is highly appreciated.
Thank you.

Regards,

Edilburga Wulan Saptandari

School of Psychology
Massey University
Palmerston North, New Zealand
Phone: [redacted]
Email: [redacted]

Site advisor:
Dr. Neila Ramdhani
Faculty of Psychology
Universitas Gadjah Mada
Yogyakarta
Email: neila_psi@ugm.ac.id

Appendix C15: Study 3 Consent Form for school principals (English)

School Consent Form

I give consent for you to approach teachers and students in grade 4 to 6 to participate in the research entitled **Profiling the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers**".

I have read the Information Sheet explaining the purpose of the research project and understand that:

- The role of the school is voluntary.
- I may decide to withdraw the school's participation at any time without penalty.
- Teachers and students from grade 4 to 6 will be invited to participate and that permission will be sought from them and also from the students' parents.
- Only students who consent and whose parents consent will participate in the project.
- All information obtained will be treated in strictest confidence.
- The teachers' and students' names will not be used and individual teachers and students will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study.
- The school will not be identifiable in any written reports about the study.
- A report of the findings will be made available to the school.

Signature: ..... **Date:** .....

Full Name - printed .....

Appendix C16: Study 3 Information Sheet for teachers

Profiling the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

INFORMATION SHEET

Researcher Introduction

My name is Edilburga Wulan Saptandari. I am a teacher at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia but currently a PhD student at the School of Psychology, Massey University, New Zealand. I am conducting research under the supervision of **Dr. Shane T. Harvey** from the School of Psychology, **Dr. Alison Sewell** from the Institute of Education and **Dr. David L. Bimler** from the Department of Health and Human Development. In addition, **Dr. Neila Ramdhani** from the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada is the site advisor for this research.

Project Description

Based on primary school teachers' and students' experiences, social and emotional skills have a major influence on the classroom environment. The same thing was discovered by the researchers. As adults in class, teachers have an important role to play in developing good relationships with students, being role models of students, and to organize classes effectively for the creation of a positive classroom climate.

The purpose of this study was to develop a profile of elementary school teachers' social-emotional skills. Thus this research is expected to provide an understanding of the teacher's social-emotional skills in the Indonesian context which in turn can encourage the creation of promotion, prevention and handling programs related to social and emotional problems in schools.

Participant Identification and Recruitment

Teachers and students who were invited to be involved in this study were teachers of class IV - VI in several public primary schools in the city of Yogyakarta. Schools are chosen randomly from the list of existing public primary schools.

Project Procedures

In this study, the teacher and students involved will be asked to complete the questionnaire. The time required in filling out this questionnaire is around 40 minutes.

Data Management

After the data is obtained, I will analyse the data. Pseudonyms will always be used throughout the research. No names and school names will appear in the thesis.
The data will be kept strictly confidential. I will store all the recordings and transcripts in a locked cabinet. Only I, as the researcher, and the three academic supervisors will have the authority to access the documents. The documents will be destroyed 5 years after I finished my PhD program.
You have the right to receive a summary of this study at its conclusion. If you want to receive it, you will be asked to provide an email or postal address.

Your Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- decline to answer any particular question;
- withdraw from the study at anytime;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded;
- ask for the recorder to be turned off at any time during the interview.

Project Contacts

- Edilburga Wulan Saptandari
  PhD Student, School of Psychology, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand
  Phone: [redacted]
  E-mail : [redacted]
- Dr. Neila Ramdhani,
  Site Advisor, Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta, Indonesia
  E-mail : neila_psi@ugm.ac.id

Please feel free to contact me and/or my supervisor at anytime if you have any questions about the project.

Appendix C17: Study 3 Consent Form for teachers

Profiling the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

☐ I have read the Information Sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

☐ I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

Signature: _____

Full Name – printed: _____

Date: _____

Appendix C18: Study 3 Child-friendly pamphlet inviting students' participation

Profiling the Social Emotional Skills

Hi!

My name is Wulan Saptandari. You can call me Yayi. I work at Faculty of Psychology UGM and I study at the School of Psychology, Massey University in New Zealand.

I am doing a study about how teachers help children, like you, to learn.

What will happen if I take part?

I will ask you and your parents to write your names on a form to say you'd like to take part. Next, I will ask you fill in a questionnaire to tell me about yourself and your learning experience.
The questionnaire will take around 40 minutes to do. I can help you with this if you would like. You also can take breaks any time.

Do I have to take part?

No... you don't have to take part if you don't want to

Will anyone know what I answer in the questionnaire?

We won't tell anyone what you answer in the questionnaire.

If you want to talk more about the study, I will be available at _____ to answer your questions.

Only I will know whether you have said yes or no to be part of this study.

Thank you!

Wulan Saptandari

Appendix C19: Study 3 Consent Form for students

Profiling the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

CONSENT FORM

I have listened to and read the information about this study. My questions about this study have been answered, so that I now understand the study.

I understand that my name will not appear on any report about this study, and that any information I tell to Yayi will not be told to anyone else.

I agree to participate in this study YES ☐ NO ☐

Child's name : _____

Child's signature : _____

Class Teacher's name : _____

Appendix C20: Study 3 Information Sheet for parents/carer

Profiling the Social Emotional Skills of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

INFORMATION SHEET

Researcher Introduction

My name is Edilburga Wulan Saptandari, and I am a teacher at the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia but currently a PhD student at the School of Psychology, Massey University, New Zealand. I am conducting research under the supervision of **Dr. Shane T. Harvey** from the School of Psychology, **Dr. Alison Sewell** from the Institute of Education and **Dr. David L. Bimler** from the Department of Health and Human Development. In addition, **Dr. Neila Ramdhani** from the Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada is the site advisor for this research.

Project Description

Based on primary school teachers' and students' experiences, social and emotional skills have a major influence on the classroom environment. The same thing was discovered by the researchers. As adults in class, teachers have an important role to play in developing good relationships with students, being role models of students, and to organize classes effectively for the creation of a positive classroom climate.

The purpose of this study was to develop a profile of elementary school teachers' social-emotional skills. Thus this research is expected to provide an understanding of the teacher's social-emotional skills in the Indonesian context which in turn can encourage the creation of promotion, prevention and handling programs related to social and emotional problems in schools.

Participant Identification and Recruitment

Teachers and students who were invited to be involved in this study were teachers of class IV - VI in several public primary schools in the city of Yogyakarta. Schools are chosen randomly from the list of existing public primary schools.

Project Procedures

In this study, the teacher and students involved will be asked to complete the questionnaire. The time required in filling out this questionnaire is around 40 minutes.

Data Management

After the data is obtained, I will analyse the data. Pseudonyms will always be used throughout the research. No names and school names will appear in the thesis.
The data will be kept strictly confidential. I will store all the recordings and transcripts in a locked cabinet. Only I, as the researcher, and the three academic supervisors will have the authority to access the documents. The documents will be destroyed 5 years after I finished my PhD program.
You have the right to receive a summary of this study at its conclusion. If you want to receive it, you will be asked to provide an email or postal address.

Participant's Rights

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to permit your child to participate, you have the right to:

- withdraw your child from the study anytime;
- ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;
- provide information on the understanding that your name and your child's name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;
- be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.

Project Contacts

- Edilburga Wulan Saptandari
  PhD Student, School of Psychology, Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand
  Phone: [redacted]
  E-mail : [redacted]
- Dr. Neila Ramdhani,
  Site Advisor, Faculty of Psychology, Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta, Indonesia
  E-mail : neila_psi@ugm.ac.id

Please feel free to contact me and/or my site advisor anytime if you have any questions about the project.

Please complete the enclosed Consent Form and return it to your child's school in the envelope provided. Your child will complete their consent form at school.

Appendix C21: Study 3 Consent Form for parents/carer

Profiling the Social Emotional Skills
of Indonesian Primary School Teachers

PARENTS/CAREGIVER CONSENT FORM

I have read the Information Sheet and have discussed the details of the study with my child. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I understand that I have the right to withdraw my child from the study at any time.

I agree to let my child voluntary participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet. YES ☐ NO ☐

Child's name : _____

Child's date of birth : _____

Child's teacher : _____

Name of person completing the consent form: _____

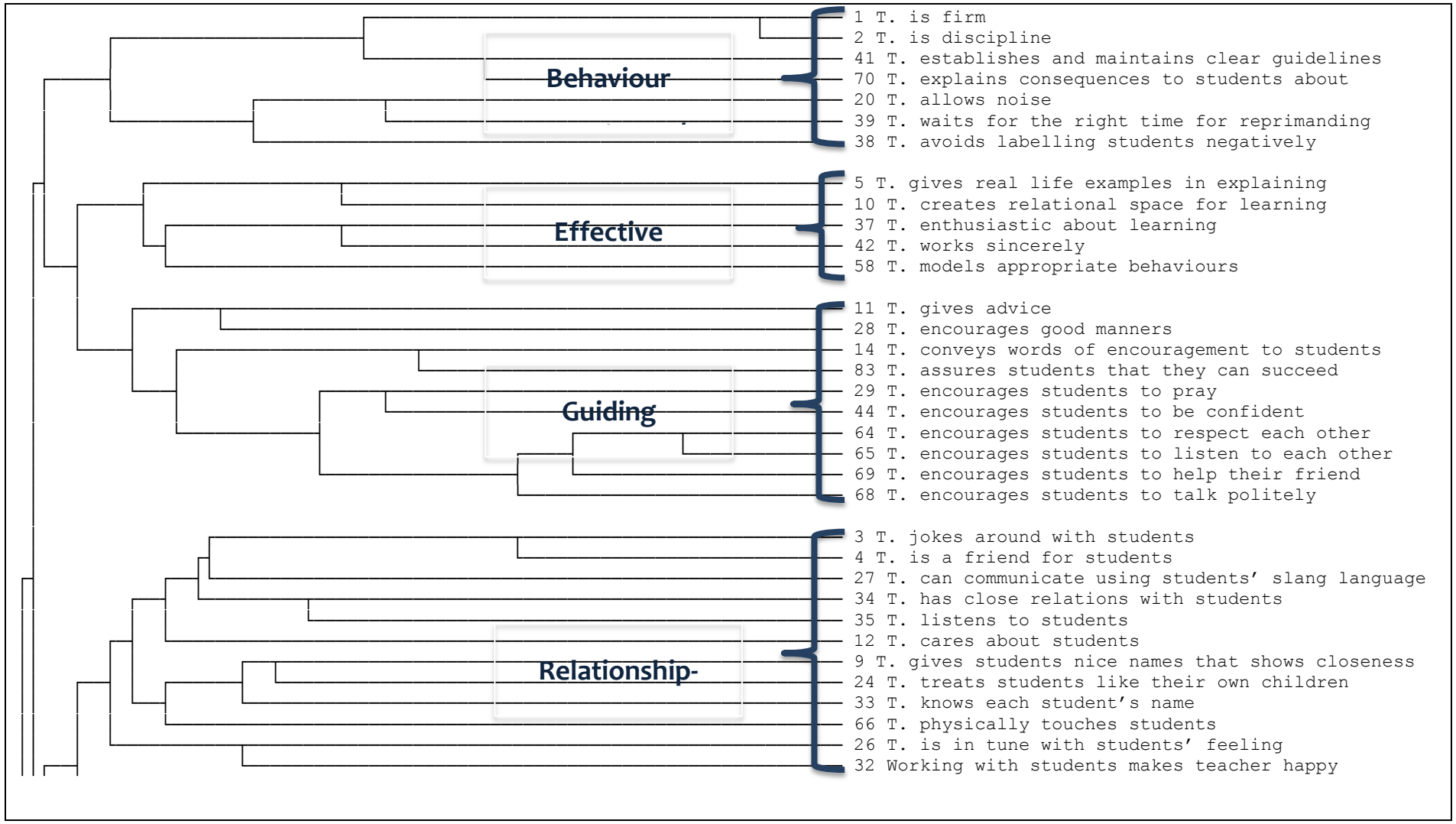
Relationship to child : _____

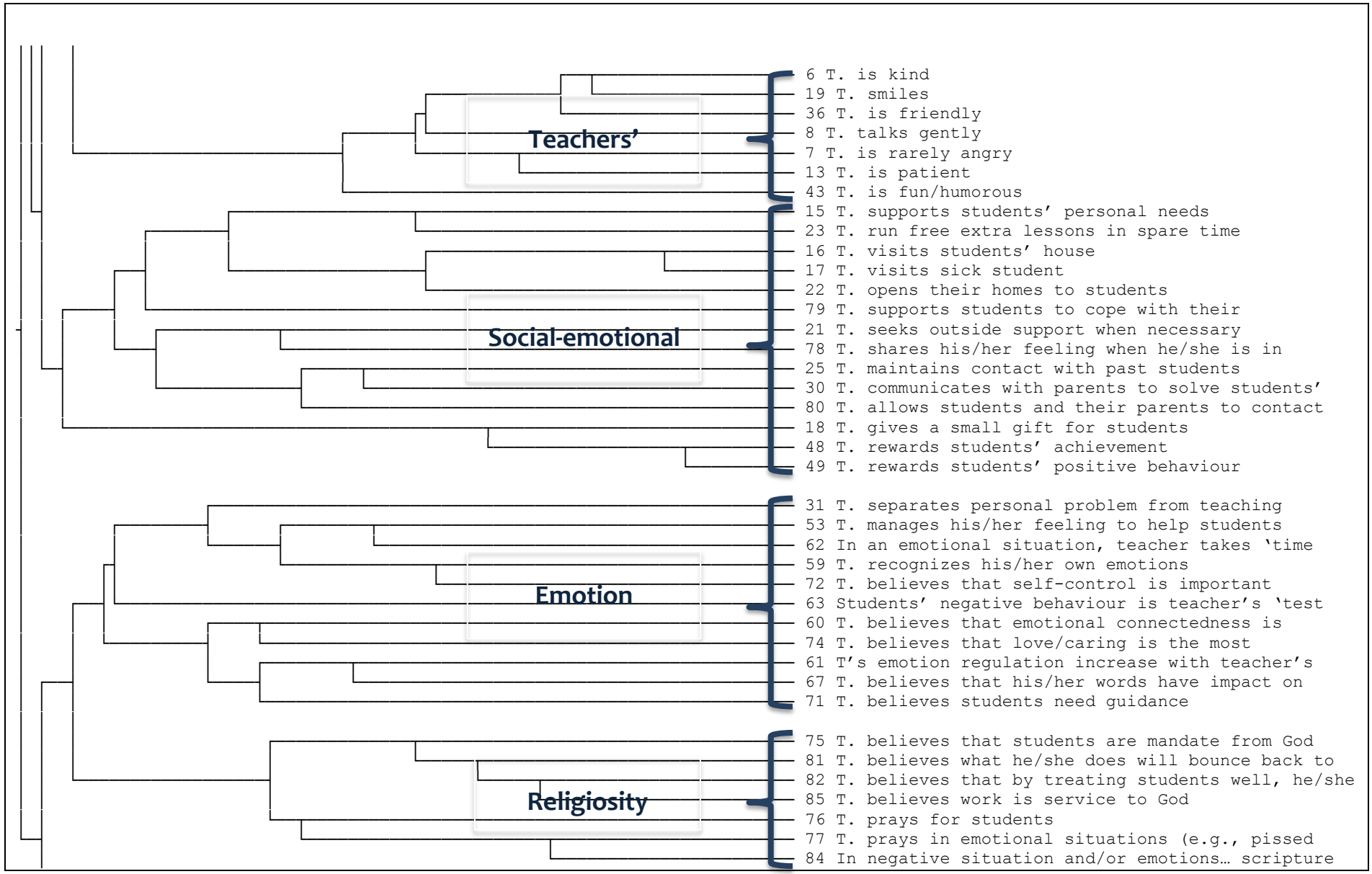
Signature : _____

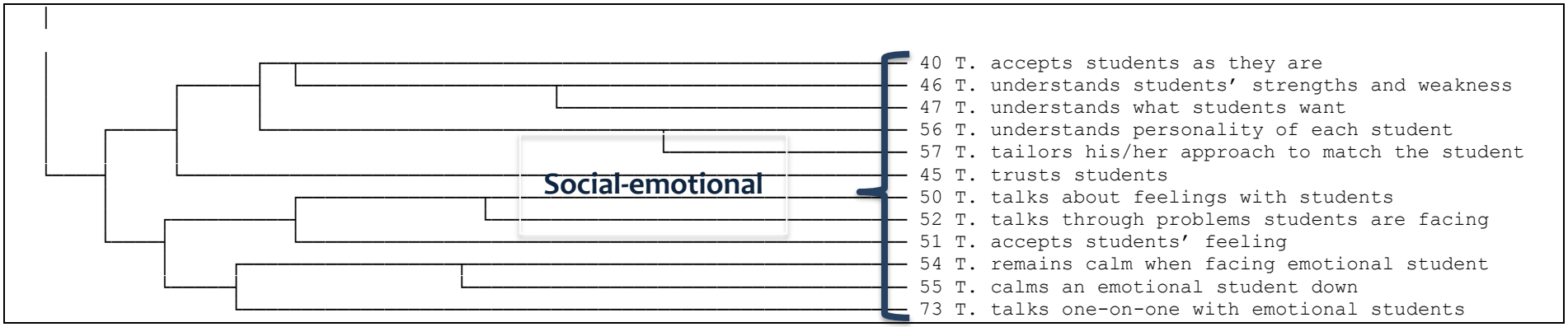
Date : _____

Please return this consent form to the school in the next week.

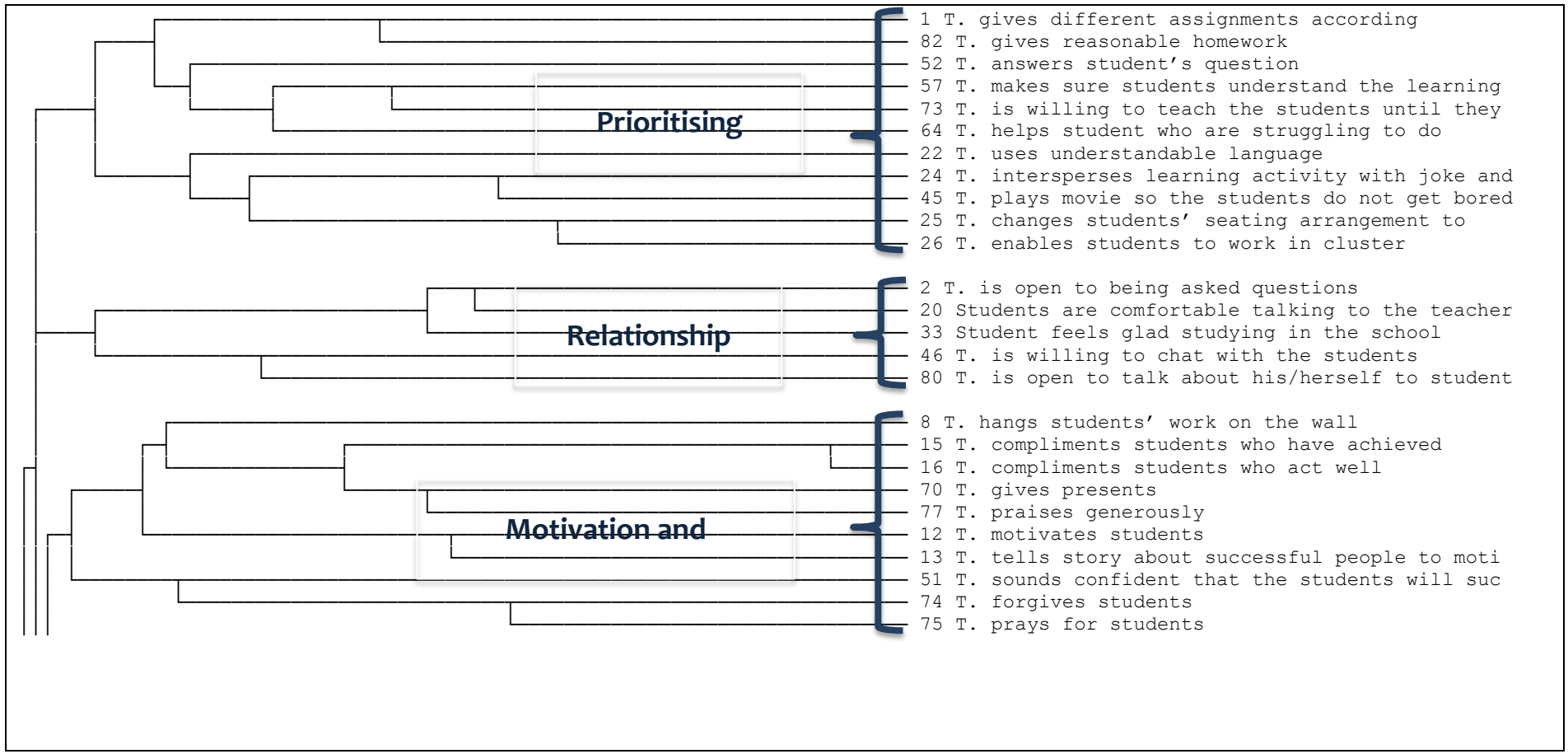
Appendix D1: GOPA Dendrogram (TSEP-T)

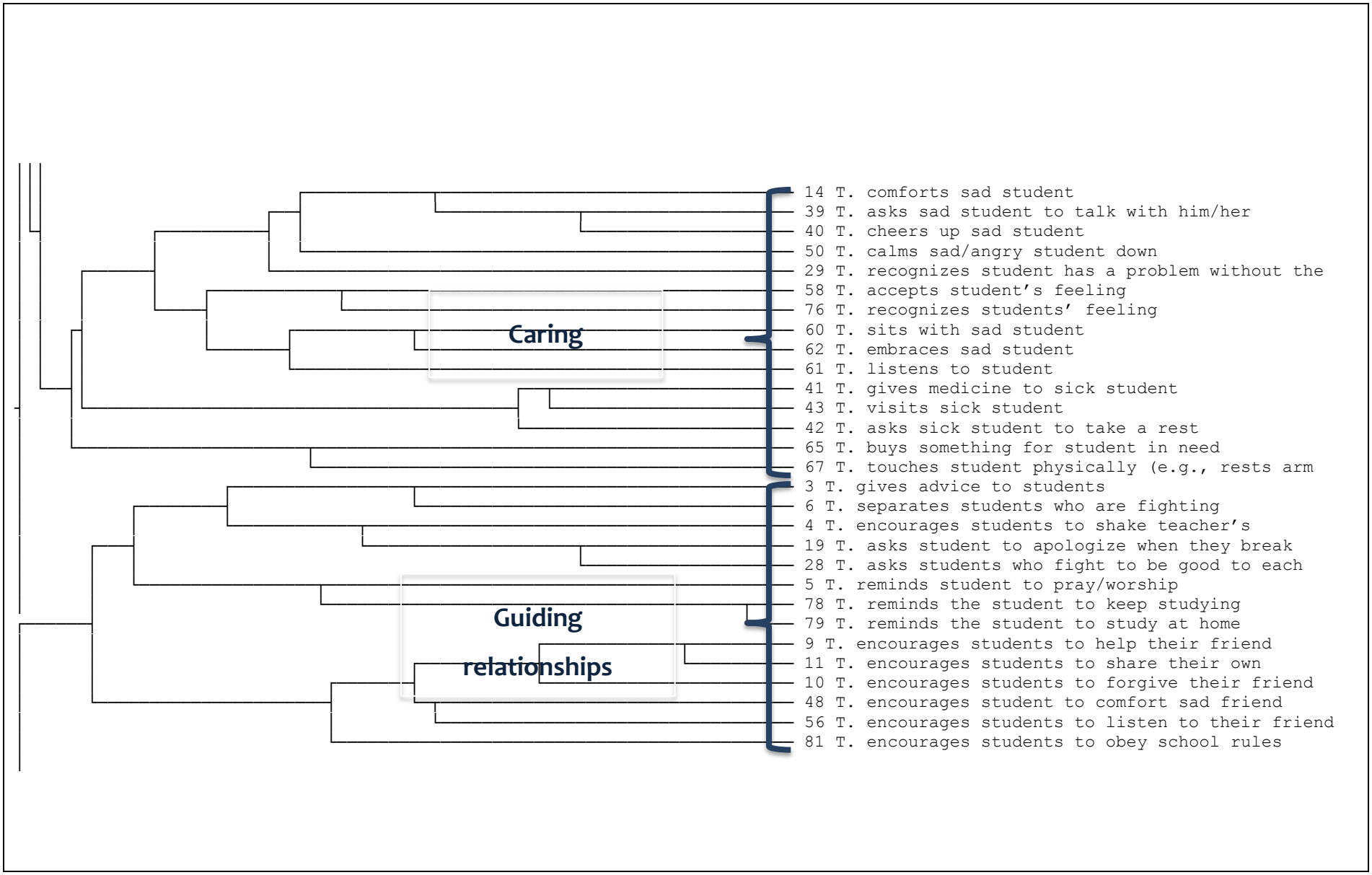


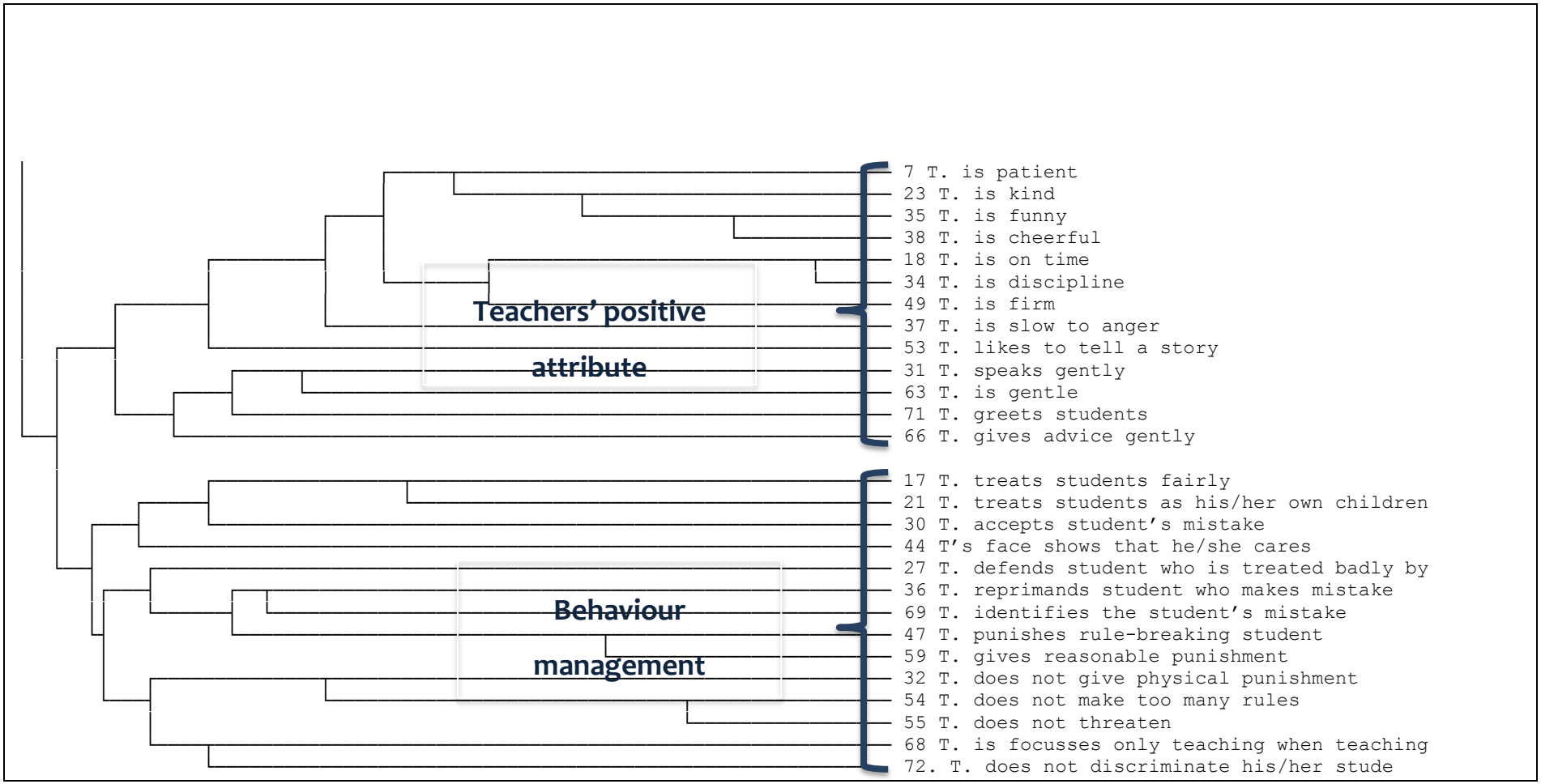

Teachers'
Social-emotional
Emotion
Religiosity
6 T. is kind
19 T. smiles
36 T. is friendly
8 T. talks gently
7 T. is rarely angry
13 T. is patient
43 T. is fun/humorous
15 T. supports students' personal needs
23 T. run free extra lessons in spare time
16 T. visits students' house
17 T. visits sick student
22 T. opens their homes to students
79 T. supports students to cope with their
21 T. seeks outside support when necessary
78 T. shares his/her feeling when he/she is in
25 T. maintains contact with past students
30 T. communicates with parents to solve students'
80 T. allows students and their parents to contact
18 T. gives a small gift for students
48 T. rewards students' achievement
49 T. rewards students' positive behaviour
31 T. separates personal problem from teaching
53 T. manages his/her feeling to help students
62 In an emotional situation, teacher takes 'time
59 T. recognizes his/her own emotions
72 T. believes that self-control is important
63 Students' negative behaviour is teacher's 'test
60 T. believes that emotional connectedness is
74 T. believes that love/caring is the most
61 T's emotion regulation increase with teacher's
67 T. believes that his/her words have impact on
71 T. believes students need guidance
75 T. believes that students are mandate from God
81 T. believes what he/she does will bounce back to
82 T. believes that by treating students well, he/she
85 T. believes work is service to God
76 T. prays for students
77 T. prays in emotional situations (e.g., pissed
84 In negative situation and/or emotions… scripture


Social-emotional
40 T. accepts students as they are
46 T. understands students' strengths and weakness
47 T. understands what students want
56 T. understands personality of each student
57 T. tailors his/her approach to match the student
45 T. trusts students
50 T. talks about feelings with students
52 T. talks through problems students are facing
51 T. accepts students' feeling
54 T. remains calm when facing emotional student
55 T. calms an emotional student down
73 T. talks one-on-one with emotional students

Appendix D2: GOPA Dendrogram (TSEP-S)




14 T. comforts sad student
39 T. asks sad student to talk with him/her
40 T. cheers up sad student
50 T. calms sad/angry student down
29 T. recognizes student has a problem without the
58 T. accepts student's feeling
76 T. recognizes students' feeling
60 T. sits with sad student
62 T. embraces sad student
61 T. listens to student
41 T. gives medicine to sick student
43 T. visits sick student
42 T. asks sick student to take a rest
65 T. buys something for student in need
67 T. touches student physically (e.g., rests arm
3 T. gives advice to students
6 T. separates students who are fighting
4 T. encourages students to shake teacher's
19 T. asks student to apologize when they break
28 T. asks students who fight to be good to each
5 T. reminds student to pray/worship
78 T. reminds the student to keep studying
79 T. reminds the student to study at home
9 T. encourages students to help their friend
11 T. encourages students to share their own
10 T. encourages students to forgive their friend
48 T. encourages student to comfort sad friend
56 T. encourages students to listen to their friend
81 T. encourages students to obey school rules
Caring
Guiding
relationships


Teachers' positive attribute
Behaviour management
7 T. is patient
23 T. is kind
35 T. is funny
38 T. is cheerful
18 T. is on time
34 T. is discipline
49 T. is firm
37 T. is slow to anger
53 T. likes to tell a story
31 T. speaks gently
63 T. is gentle
71 T. greets students
66 T. gives advice gently
17 T. treats students fairly
21 T. treats students as his/her own children
30 T. accepts student's mistake
44 T's face shows that he/she cares
27 T. defends student who is treated badly by
36 T. reprimands student who makes mistake
69 T. identifies the student's mistake
47 T. punishes rule-breaking student
59 T. gives reasonable punishment
32 T. does not give physical punishment
54 T. does not make too many rules
55 T. does not threaten
68 T. is focusses only teaching when teaching
72. T. does not discriminate his/her stude